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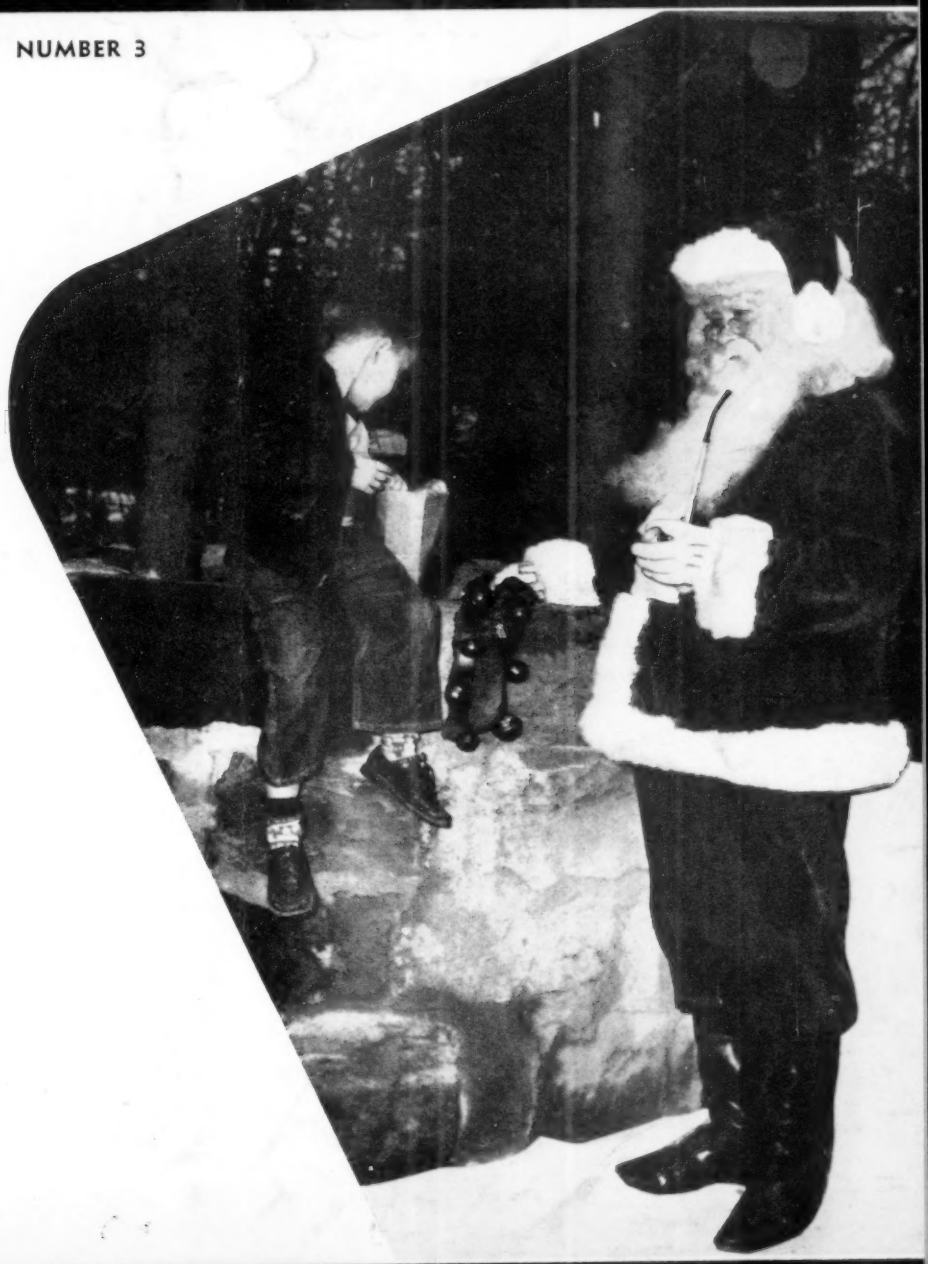

AMERICA'S OLDEST MAGAZINE FOR EDUCATORS

A Teacher's Prayer

O Lord of all learners and all teachers:

Help us to re-examine our loyalties by the light of thy teaching and to square them with eternal truth.

Help us to dedicate ourselves anew to the children; for of such is the kingdom of heaven.

Help us to dedicate ourselves anew to the free public school; for it is the bulwark of our personal rights, our political liberties, and our representative institutions.

Help us to dedicate ourselves anew to our chosen goal of a united profession of teachers; for in it we shall find our larger selfhood.

Help us to dedicate ourselves anew to the democratic ideals of our country; for it is the last best hope of earth.

Help us to dedicate ourselves anew to the universal brotherhood of humanity; for we are all members one of another.

Grant, O Lord, that we may hold high the torch of truth, goodness, and beauty, that we may be worthy the high office of teacher.

For thine is the kingdom and the power and glory forever.

— *JOY ELMER MORGAN*

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CONTENTS **page**

Curriculum Development from Kindergarten to Grade Twelve
Harris E. Russell and Ernest G. Lake 2

Getting Your Money's Worth from Audio-Visual Equipment . . . . . *Joseph J. Devitt* 4

Reading Techniques for the Content Subjects . . . . . *Gertrude B. Stearns* 7

Another Road to International Understanding . . . . . *Mary Elizabeth Fowler* 11

Use of Audio-Visual Aids in Twelfth-Grade Composition . . . . . *Amy Glazier* 14

Suggestions for Teaching Listening . . . . . *Margaret J. Early* 17

About Our Authors 21

New Books 22

Try It 25

Research 26

Materials 29

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Curriculum Development from Kindergarten to Grade Twelve

By Harris E. Russell and Ernest G. Lake

During the past several years, the Racine Public Schools have identified a number of curriculum problems, studied them, and made changes in accordance with findings.[1] Certain principles of operation have emerged which have served to facilitate curriculum change. It is the purpose of this article to discuss some of these major principles.

Racine is an industrial community of about 77,000, located midway between Chicago and Milwaukee in southeastern Wisconsin. There is a student population of 12,000. Principals have no teaching assignments. Subject matter consultants in art, music, reading, mathematics, physical education, language arts, industrial arts, and library aids and a director compose the Division of Instructional Services.

This article describes curriculum development procedures at the system-wide level. Only incidental reference will be made to building-level operations. Study projects at this level have their own story.

Principle I. ***Curriculum study and change should arise out of the concerns and needs of the entire professional staff.***

Curriculum change occurs when teachers and students plan and engage in new learning experiences. Teachers' concepts, appreciations, and skills *must* change before any real curriculum change occurs. Accordingly, Racine curriculum studies are based on the conviction that curriculum change must begin and end with the classroom teacher.

The principal problem of getting at teachers' needs and concerns is often the matter of establishing an atmosphere and an organizational framework where two-way communication can take place between teacher and administrator. The preceding two phases of this problem are interrelated, though they will be discussed separately.

THE RACINE ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE FOR ADMINISTRATION

Each school consisting of a principal, teachers, and parents is considered the basic unit in curriculum construction and supervision. The principal is the key figure. Racine principals have identified their responsibilities in improving curriculum as follows:

- —To stimulate and to lead their staff, individually and in groups, in locating, analyzing, and working toward solutions of instructional problems.
- —To assist in securing and organizing resources, both human and material, for the improvement of instruction.
- —To evaluate, with the staff, the instructional program.
- —To insure that liaison is established between staff and other groups working to improve instruction.
- —To implement the curriculum program agreed on through the Division of Instructional Services.
- —To interpret to the teachers, parents, and students of their schools, the curriculum and the instructional program.

Under the leadership of the principal a part of each building staff meeting is devoted to curriculum problems. Principals encourage discussion of instructional problems, looking upon themselves as leaders of professional seminars. Building groups thus identify problems and work out solutions. Through this process, problems of a system-wide nature soon emerge. Curriculum improvement, therefore, requires the establishment of a central body to receive suggestions for study of system-wide problems and to advise with the Division of Instructional Services in the selection of the most significant problems.

Racine has provided such a body through the creation of a Curriculum Council. The Council consists of thirty delegates, representing teachers from all buildings, Board of Education members, principals, and the central office staff. The Superintendent and Director of Instruction serve as ex-officio members. Delegates are elected by their buildings or groups for three-year terms. The Council meets monthly; it has defined its role as follows:

- —To receive and to study suggestions from the groups it represents on city-wide instructional problems.

[1]. "The Social Studies Program," 1953; "The Junior High School Program," 1953; "Reporting Practices," 1954; "Senior High School Problems," 1954.

—To recommend to the Division of Instructional Services the appointment of committees to study vital city-wide instructional problems.
—To review the work of city-wide committees and to promote, through the principals, continuous two-way communication between the buildings and the committees.
—To plan, with the Division of Instructional Services, for city-wide in-service training programs.

Teachers are free through the channels described above to raise instructional problems at any time. A pattern of timing has developed causing the staff to make an intense survey of possible problems each spring in March and April. The Curriculum Council receives and studies these suggestions and lays out a program of work for the following year. The Director of Instructional Services then proceeds to plan details for carrying out the program. The problem of selecting committees, choosing visiting consultants, and collecting study materials is usually left to the Division of Instructional Services. The Superintendent of Schools presents the proposed program to the Board of Education in June. Any needed financial agreements on policy matters are secured before the new school term begins. Thus, as the school year starts, the stage is set for the new study.

Most of the studies mentioned have proceeded as described. In the spring of 1952, for example, the Curriculum heard reports from the various schools indicating that problems in the social studies area were of greatest concern to teachers. The Council recommended that a committee be appointed to study social studies teaching in Racine during 1952-1953, keeping the following purposes in mind:

—To make a complete study of the 13-year program of social studies teaching.
—To prepare a program which combined the best practices of the past with the best of today
—To plan for the necessary pupil and teacher aids to put the program into operation.

The Superintendent of Schools discussed plans with the Board of Education, including the use of visiting consultants and the release of teachers for committee duty. Dr. W. Linwood Chase of Boston University and Dr. Edward Krug of the University of Wisconsin were invited to serve as consultants for the Committee for a period of nine days, three in November, three in February, and three in April. The principals and teachers selected a thirty-man study committee. Teachers were released from teaching duties for the nine-day period.

During the school year 1952-53, the Social Studies Committee pursued its assignment and in May submitted a final report to the Board of Education. Subsequently the Board adopted the report. Since that time, the program as recommended by the Committee has been put into effect.

This pattern of curriculum study makes possible the expression of needs and concerns by teachers, administrators, central office staff, and Board of Education members; it makes possible the establishment of two-way communication among all groups concerned. Before a study is undertaken, a commitment is secured from all groups that a problem is important and worthy of consideration.

As important as the pattern by which we ascertain curriculum problems is the atmosphere within which teachers are freed to study these needs and concerns. Although an organizational pattern cannot insure the tone of a school system, it can indicate to teachers the sincerity of instructional leaders in trying to create clear channels for two-way communication.

The secret of effectiveness in two-way communication probably lies in the kind of feeling about human relationships brought to the words by administrators, central office staff and the superintendent. Teachers "catch" the faith, or lack of it, which the leaders have in the democratic way of involvement.

Principle II. ***Keep a curriculum program moving on a Kindergarten-Grade 12 basis.***

The Racine curriculum program is structured as a thirteen-year program. Two-way communication is helpful between teachers and administrators, and between teachers and consultants. It is also helpful between teachers of various grade levels. In a properly coordinated curriculum, teachers will teach and children learn at each point in the curriculum in relationship to what has been learned in the past and to what will be learned in the future.

The organizational structure of the Racine system again implements this principle. Curriculum groups are organized, in the main, on a K-12 basis. The Curriculum Council does all its planning with representatives from the thirteen grade levels. For example, its committees for considering the problem of improving pupil reporting practices in the elementary school had representatives from all junior and senior high schools.

The Division of Instructional Services also is organized and operates on a thirteen-year foundation. The Director and consultants are responsible for curriculum improvement from the kindergarten through the twelfth grade.

Elementary, junior high school, and senior high school principals meet as a group monthly and plan for all levels. They profit from hearing discussions of school problems at all grade levels rather than just the problems of their own schools. Elementary principals see new aspects of their jobs as they participate in a discussion on the drop-out problem from senior and junior high school principals. Reading problems in the elementary school grades have many implications for junior and senior high school principals.

Single salary schedules in force reflect the administration's point of view that teaching at the first grade is just as valuable as teaching in high school. Organization on a thirteen-year basis helps direct the mind set of teachers toward a broad understanding of school problems. As teachers of all school levels and school subjects work on committees, study in local workshops, and serve on the Curriculum Council they

(Continued on page 30)

Getting Your Money's Worth from Audio-Visual Equipment

By Joseph J. Devitt

Audio-visual equipment is expensive. However, the potential value of such teaching aids as projectors and tape recorders is widely recognized; and either through tax funds or through gifts from public-spirited organizations, they have been provided for most school systems. It is our responsibility to make the wisest and fullest use of these expensive tools of teaching.

Central Circulation

The experience of many school systems has proved the value of a central office for the collection, storage, and distribution of audio-visual materials within each school or town. It is difficult for any one teacher to become familiar with the tremendous quantities of materials that are available in his teaching field; it is unnecessary duplication for each teacher to assume the responsibility of securing just for his own classes materials that may be used with equal effectiveness by other teachers.

Several plans for the handling of this duty may be considered, depending on the size of the school unit to be served, and varying from the employment of a full-time person to the use of a classroom teacher released from "regular" teaching for the necessary time. In medium-sized schools the librarian or the guidance director may devote a part of his efforts to this assignment.

The most effective program needs trained personnel. If the appointee is not adequately qualified, he should secure some kind of in-service training in the philosophy, materials, methods, and techniques of audio-visual education.

First Purchases of Equipment

Most schools are supplied with some pieces of audio-visual equipment. When this is not true and purchases are contemplated, it would be well to consider giving priority to the versatile combination filmstrip and slide projector. The initial cost of this projector is less than that of many other types of audio-visual equipment. With a modest budget a school system may in a few years accumulate an impressive library of varied filmstrips.

These filmstrips will always be available for use at the time when they will best fit into the teaching-learning cycle. They are flexible: all of a filmstrip may be shown or only those frames which illustrate the process or contribute to the meaning or insight sought by the students. One picture may be left on the screen long enough for the class to discuss its implications at length.

Pictures taken with a 35mm camera may be developed as colored slides for less than twenty cents each. Alert teachers may take pictures of places of historic interest, of natural wonders, of scientific phenomena, and of many other subjects that will help to interpret to their classes the units being studied. In time, teachers may accumulate priceless files of their own slides.

Hand-made slides may be prepared inexpensively in the classroom. The glass squares may be purchased of plain glass or with one side treated to resemble a frosted electric lamp. The frosted slide is ready to use; that of plain glass may be treated with gelatin or lacquer for best results. Although the frosted slide is easier to use, for it does not need the coating, it does not permit as much light to pass through and so fails to produce as clear an image as does the plain glass.

One-quarter teaspoonful of household plain gelatin dissolved in a cup of hot water will form enough solution to treat a large number of slides. Clear lacquer should be diluted with lacquer thinner in the proportion of one part to fifty parts of the thinner. Either solution may be applied to one surface of the slide with a small brush. Best results are secured by standing the slides in a holder or tray with one corner down, so that any excess liquid will accumulate in this corner. Forty or fifty slides may be prepared at one time and wrapped for storage until needed. Used slides may be cleaned and treated again.

Designs should be sketched in pencil on paper, and then copied or traced on the treated surface of the slide. Crayons, pencils, suitable pens and India or colored inks, or thin paint brushes may be used to complete the drawings and to fill in shaded areas. Since the slide is a transparency, only very thin applications of coloring material should be used. The water colors used by photographers to color pictures are very satisfactory. Fine-pointed pens are needed for fine-line drawings and blunt pens for heavy lines. Erasures and smudges should be avoided.

Handmade slides have advantages over the filmstrips in that they are less expensive, are selected and prepared to fit the specific needs of a particular teaching-learning situation, and may easily be arranged to be shown in any order.

Ordering Audio-Visual Materials

Audio-visual materials should never be purchased sight unseen; they should always be ordered on approval only. They should then be previewed by the teachers who will use them and evaluated by criteria similar to the following:

1. Do the materials contribute to the realization of the specific objectives of the teaching-learning situation in which they are to be used?
2. Do they present simply and clearly the desired concepts?
3. Are they well-organized and sequential?
4. Do they provide fresh insight into problems and relationships?
5. Are they sufficiently interesting to hold the absorbed attention of the students?
6. Are they technically well constructed? Motion pictures should have clear, sharply focused, vivid pictures, and distinct, well-modulated sound.
7. Are they free from error, factual or implied?
8. Are they durable?
9. Are they economical in terms of teacher and class time?
10. If expensive, are they suitable for frequent or recurring use by succeeding classes?
11. Are the materials appropriate to the age level of the pupils who will use them?
12. Are the cost of the materials and the limits of the audio-visual budget considered so as to insure a fair distribution of available funds among the various subject areas?

Making Audio-Visual Aids Serve Several Purposes at Once

A single film or filmstrip may serve several purposes at once. It may be used in the introductory phase of a unit of learning to assist students to develop vicariously an experience background for the unit. It may at the same time help pupils to identify and adopt worthwhile goals they will seek during the unit of work. It may introduce new and useful vocabulary. It may serve as the basis for a panel discussion out of which may emerge suggestions for modification of the teacher-prepared study and activity guide. Especially if the teacher has prepared a special activity guide for use with the film or filmstrip, it may provoke some genuine critical thinking and evaluation by the students either at the time it is used or after the class has had an opportunity to do additional work on the unit.

Audio-visual materials may be used profitably in any phase of the teaching-learning situation where they fit in as an integral part of the process. They play a role equal or superior to that of printed material and class discussion. They replace neither, but supplement both. Especially where it is difficult to secure printed materials suited to the wide range of reading abilities in the class, they have a significant contribution to make in assisting pupils to understand principles, to develop attitudes and to acquire skills.

A set of posters, a radio program, or a motion picture may be used in the introductory phase, as a part of the core activities, or to help summarize the learnings of a unit. A filmstrip or a set of slides may serve as a resource to provide needed supplementary information; it may clarify hazy impressions and understandings derived from printed material; it may help solve a difficulty in grasping the steps in a process; it may help to develop new attitudes and appreciations; it may assist a pupil committee to make a usable, vivid report to the class.

Use of Free Audio-Visual Materials

The use of sponsored audio-visual materials, especially sound films, is widespread. Many schools own or have access to a sound film projector, but

Courtesy of Portland, Oregon schools

Audio-visual equipment supplements printed material and class discussion.

often there is only a very meager allocation of funds for the purchase or rental of purely instructional films. For this reason many schools have resorted to extensive use of free films made available by commercial agencies.

Some schools regularly schedule assembly programs at which the commercially sponsored films are shown. When there is little or no attempt to correlate the film content with instructional activities in the classrooms, it is difficult to defend this practice educationally. The only apparent advantages are a break in the school routine and the provision of entertainment of sometimes doubtful quality.

Some of the sponsored films present a particular economic point of view. Some promote a particular brand name. Our schools are supported by all of the people; we have a responsibility to serve all of the people and all of their interests impartially. We fail in our responsibility if we show biased films and thereby tacitly support the views of a particular group.

Suggestion for the use of commercially sponsored teaching materials may include a consideration of the following principles:

1. All of the materials should be previewed by teachers to ensure that they are satisfactory for use.
2. Acceptable films give general information, show processes and methods, develop general understandings and attitudes; they do not foster a specific economic attitude or conspicuously promote the sale of a particular brand.
3. The factual content of the film must be accurate and representative.
4. The film must contribute to the achievement of the specific aims of the teaching-learning situation in which it is used. It should become an integral part of this process.
5. The film should present material not easily secured from other sources.
6. The content, method of presentation, and vocabulary must be appropriate to the grade level where it is used.
7. The useful educational portions of the film should not be cluttered with irrelevant material that does not contribute to learning.
8. Films with a pronounced bias may be used in classes such as consumer economics and problems of democracy where there is an opportunity to compare and evaluate.

SOURCES OF INFORMATION ON AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS AND SERVICES

A. Research Division, National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C. Will send on request annotated lists of sources of free and inexpensive teaching aids in various fields.

B. Educational Periodicals

Many publish regularly or intermittently, lists of audio-visual materials and reviews. Examples are:

NEA Digest. 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

Clearing House. Inor Publishing Co., Inc., 207 Fourth Avenue, New York 3, N. Y.

The Balance Sheet. South-Western Publishing Co., 634 Broadway, Cincinnati 2, Ohio. Free to high school principals and business education teachers.

The Civic Leader. Civic Education Service, 1733 K Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C. Free to teachers who subscribe to Civic Education Service publications.

C. Audio-Visual Periodicals

Audio-Visual Guide. Educational and Recreational Guides, Inc., 172 Reuner Avenue, Newark 8, New Jersey. Monthly, September to May. $3.00.

Educational Screen. Educational Screen, Inc., 64 East Lake Street, Chicago 1, Illinois. Monthly, September to June. $3.00.

Journal of the AER. Association for Education by Radio, 228 North LaSalle Street, Chicago 1, Illinois. Monthly, September to May. $2.00.

See and Hear. 812 North Dearborn Street, Chicago 10, Illinois. National magazine of sight and sound in education. Monthly, September to May. $3.00.

D. Textbooks

Sections on activities and teaching aids.

E. State Departments of Education

Curriculum bulletins contain suggestions concerning sources and methods of using audio-visual aids. Wherever possible, assistance is provided to meet specific problems.

F. Commercial Agencies

Advertisements supply much information to schools concerning sources of audio-visual materials. The following agencies are among the many who will send catalogues upon request:

Coronet Instructional Films, 65 East South Water Street, Chicago 1, Illinois. May be secured through Ideal Pictures Corporation.

Eastman Kodak Company, Teaching Films Division, Rochester, N. Y.

Educational Film Catalogue, The H. W. Wilson Co., New York, N. Y.

Educators Guide to Free Films and *Educators Guide to Free Film-Strips,* Educators Progress Service, Box 497, Randolph, Wisconsin. Each catalogue, $3.00.

Encyclopedia Brittanica Films, Inc. 1150 Wilmette Avenue, Wilmette, Illinois; 30 Huntington Avenue, Boston 16, Mass.

Ideal Pictures Corporation, 40 Melrose Street, Boston 16, Mass.

Modern Talking Picture Service, 9 Rockefeller Plaza, New York, N. Y.

Recordings for School Use, World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y.

(Continued on page 28)

Reading Techniques for the Content Subjects

By Gertrude B. Stearns

There is a great need for instruction in reading in the content subjects during the junior high school years. It is true that some schools provide training in reading skills, either in special reading groups or in connection with English courses, but even if this is done, pupils often fail to make the transfer of these skills to the areas where they are most needed. Poor performance in school subjects, which is frequently assumed to be a result of indifference, is often due to lack of skill in reading. But such skill is seldom acquired without instruction; the techniques have to be learned.

Teachers of content subjects could lighten their burden a good deal by helping their pupils to do a better job of using their textbooks. This is not to say that the teacher of social studies, for example, needs to take time away from his subject to give practice in various reading skills as a separate area of instruction. The teacher of history or civics can and should help the pupils and himself by using a "reading method" of teaching his subject. That is, he can often teach the part of the course which is based on reading a textbook as if he were teaching a class in reading instead of one in social studies.

If this sounds like an odd way to teach history, remember that much of the work in this subject is a matter of gathering material from books. Teachers spend time and effort in planning question sheets, study guides, and lesson outlines to help the pupils find the desired information; then they spend more time constructing quizzes and objective tests to find out whether the pupils have learned what they were supposed to learn. In the meantime the pupils have not yet succeeded in *finding* the things they were supposed to learn, so they do not do very well on the tests.

If the teacher would spend the same amount of time teaching the pupils how to study their textbooks efficiently, he would discover that they have acquired more skill in reading, and that they have also learned a great deal more history than under the usual method of assigning material to be studied and hoping for the best. It is the purpose of this article to give advice and assistance to those teachers of content subjects who would like to try the "reading approach" to the teaching of their textbook material.

"STUDY" READING

Efficient reading, at least of the study type, does not mean reading a selection straight through from beginning to end with careful attention to each word. This method is practically sure to fail, unless the reader has a photographic memory. Better learning is achieved by sorting and sifting ideas, seeing relationships, and mastering organized ideas.

The study type of reading requires the pupil to do three things:

1. Locate facts and ideas quickly
2. Decide what are the important points to be learned in a given selection of material
3. Retain the material in a usable form

In order to achieve these ends, a number of skills are needed. These three are of first importance:

1. Skimming
2. Finding main ideas
3. Recall (remembering subject matter)

Suggestions will be given for teaching these three skills. It is assumed that the pupils have average reading ability for their grade. If they are seriously retarded in word recognition, they need remedial help and should not be using the regular textbook at all.

The area of social studies has been chosen for illustrative purposes because reading is an especially important part of the work in that field. However, the same techniques can be used with many of the textbooks in English literature, journalism, science, home economics, business, and some of the vocational subjects.

All illustrations are based on *Living in Our Communities,* by Krug and Quillen (Scott, Foresman & Company, 1950). Quotations from this book are used by special permission of the publishers.

Skimming

One of the big problems in studying is *finding* the facts or ideas which are to be learned. For this purpose, ability to skim is essential. Few pupils can do this without instruction, for most of them think that good reading means giving careful attention to every word. The following procedures will make it possible to teach skimming and facts at the same time.

From the chapter you are about to teach, make a list of very definite questions about any specific facts or ideas that you want the pupils to know. The following sample questions are based on a section called "Good Water Isn't Found Everywhere," in *Living in Our Communities.*

1. Where did people in the *Middle Ages* get their water?
2. What plague occurred in *London* in *1854*?

3. When was *filtering* of water first tried?
4. Where does *Los Angeles* get its water?
5. Why is a *good water supply* important?
6. What harm does *polluted water* do?
7. Why do most people think that *running water* soon purifies itself?
8. What methods are used by *cities* to get *pure water?*

Note that a number of words in these questions may be unfamiliar to the pupils. Be sure they know the meaning of such terms as *plague, filter, polluted.*

Choosing key words (How to know what to look for)

1. Stress the idea that skimming is *always* done for a purpose.
   Key words are in *italics* in the sample questions.
2. Discuss the questions. Point out that the answer to question 1 will have the words "Middle Ages" in it, which can easily be spotted by the capital letters. The answer to question 3 will involve a date as well as the word "filtering." In question 7 the pupils should be on the watch for the words "running water." Have the pupils decide what word or words to look for in finding the answer to each question.

Finding single facts (How to locate a definite piece of information)

1. After the pupils can decide on good key words, give practice in finding the facts called for. Emphasize speed. Allow ten seconds to find a fact, or have the pupils compete to see who can locate it first. Insist that the pupils must not *read* the material, but should *hunt* for the key words. Compare the procedure to that used in looking up a name in the telephone directory.
2. After practicing with short selections, ask questions which will require searching through a number of pages.
3. Carry on *Finding facts* concurrently with *Choosing key words.* Pupils can decide on the key word in a question or topic and then find the key word in the paragraph or selection.
4. Limit this first type of practice to finding facts with easily recognizable key words (see questions 1-4). Do not forget that the idea of searching and not reading is a new one to many of the pupils.

Skimming for connected facts (How to locate thoughts rather than words)

1. When the pupils are able to locate a single fact without *reading,* bring up some questions whose answers require more than a word or a date (such as questions 5-8).
2. Point out that after locating the place where polluted water is discussed, they will have to hunt more carefully in the next few paragraphs to find some things about harm caused by polluted water. This time they do not know what particular words will be found; they will have to be on the watch for *any* words which are connected with the bad effects of polluted water.

Acquiring independence

1. After several sessions of "hunting" for words and ideas under the careful supervision of the teacher, give the pupils a list of questions to answer without any help. These may be duplicated or written on the board.
2. Put a time limit on finding the answers, and make it short enough so the pupils will not have time to *read* the material.

This kind of practice, for fifteen or twenty minutes at several class sessions, will enable the pupils to locate information quite successfully. You will find that each time they do such an exercise, they will also learn the facts and ideas they have looked for. A brief oral review of the material covered, at the end of the practice session, will fix the subject matter securely enough for good retention.

Finding Main Ideas

Ability to find the main idea of a paragraph is *the* basic and fundamental skill in all kinds of study reading. Until the pupil can find the main point that the author intends him to learn from a given paragraph, he is not going to make much progress toward mastering the contents of a chapter or doing wide reading on some topic of his own.

Main ideas of single paragraphs

Choose from the textbook several paragraphs with the topic sentences in various places: first, second, last. Include also some paragraphs with no topic sentences. Here are some samples from *Living in Our Communities.* Paragraphs 3 and 4 have been slightly adapted to bring out the point more clearly.

1. TOPIC SENTENCE FIRST

The most important health resources of a community are its doctors, nurses, and hospitals. They help prevent disease and help cure illness when it does occur. They also assist in health education. Without these aids a community would be badly handicapped in its fight to maintain good health.

2. TOPIC SENTENCE SECOND

Nursing is often thought of as something that is done only in a hospital. But nursing in the home is important, too, and the public health nurse plays a real part in maintaining health in many communities. The first city in America to provide for visiting nurses, who go directly to the homes of people who need them, was Los Angeles. The idea has been taken up by many other cities and by smaller communities as well. Visiting nurses are also supplied by religious denominations, charities, the Red Cross, and by some industries and life insurance companies.

3. TOPIC SENTENCE LAST

New York City struggles heroically with its own smoke nuisance, but it has no legal right to do anything about the smoke that blows across the Hudson River from New Jersey factory districts. Cincinnati's smoke will sometimes blow across the Ohio River to Covington, Kentucky. In such cases smoke is not merely a local nuisance but a regional one.

4. NO TOPIC SENTENCE

A good doctor needs the help and equipment of a good hospital for some of his cases. Sick people often need special care which can by given only in hospitals. Hospitals can also help to control the spread of contagious diseases.

Take your illustrative paragraphs one at a time and go through this procedure with each one.

1. Have the pupils read the first sentence only and stop.
2. Discuss what the paragraph must be about *if* this is the topic sentence.
3. Have them skim the rest of the paragraph to find out whether it *all* bears on this topic. If it does, the first sentence contains the main idea. (See paragraph 1.)
4. If the first sentence does *not* contain the main idea, ask the pupils: "What does the author want you to know as a result of reading this paragraph?"
5. See if they can find a phrase or a sentence that expresses the answer to this question. Some places where a main idea may be found:

SECOND SENTENCE

The first sentence may be a transition, referring back to the previous paragraph, or it may be an introduction, leading up to the main topic, which is stated in the second sentence. Note that in paragraph 2 the main idea is not that people think of nursing as something done only in a hospital. The paragraph is really about the importance of home nursing.

AT THE END

The paragraph may start right in on the details which are to be presented, and then sum up these details in a topic sentence at the end. This type is not so common in textbook material written for younger pupils. Paragraph 3 is an example.

NO TOPIC SENTENCE

Sometimes the whole paragraph is composed of details, with no summarizing sentence. Or it may be a contrast between two points of view, or a sequence of events which happened in a certain order. In this case the pupil will have to state in his own words "what this all adds up to." The main idea in paragraph 4 is: There are several reasons why hospitals are important in their communities.

Main ideas of longer selections

For practice in this skill, choose a section of the textbook which has at least five or six paragraphs but only two or three main ideas, and which has no paragraph leads to give cues to the pupils. Note that while each paragraph will have a main idea of its own, this may be only a subtopic in the larger organization of the whole selection. Proceed as follows:

1. If there is an introductory paragraph, ask if it sounds like something important or only like "getting started." Show that the concluding paragraph also does not contribute directly to the list of main ideas.
2. Direct pupils to look at the first sentence in each paragraph. It may not be the topic sentence, but it will at least tell them whether the author is discussing pure water or polluted water. As long as the paragraphs seem to deal with the same general topic (for instance, pure water) they are probably connected with one main idea. When the pupils find a paragraph that tells something (no matter what) about another general topic (for instance, polluted water) this is probably the beginning of another main idea.
3. Continue this process of checking each paragraph to see whether it continues the same topic as the one before or starts a new topic. Note the topics as they are discovered.
4. Give practice in finding signals that tell when another point is introduced: another, next, second (third, etc.), finally, still better, most important of all, etc. This should be done concurrently with the other practice.

At first the pupils will have trouble in finding the main idea. This suggests the need for such practice. However, most pupils can learn to find the central thought of well-organized paragraphs or series of paragraphs, and as they practice this skill you will find that they have learned practically all of the ideas they have been finding.

Recall

By this time the pupils should be well aware of the fact that the way to get the most out of their study reading is not to *read*, but to work over the material, doing a good deal of thinking in the process, hunting for the points they need, letting the minor details fill in the background but never obscure the main issues, and finding the over-all plan (main ideas) of the selection as a whole.

Sometimes pupils can do all of the tasks noted above, but will not be able to retain the results of the sorting, sifting, and arranging process. Fortunately, this skill is not difficult to develop once they can find the main ideas.

For practice material, select well-organized passages without paragraph leads. Begin with single

(Continued on next page)

Oh how lovely! Just what I needed.

paragraphs and ask the pupils to state in their own words the main ideas and the most important supporting details. After they have learned how to find the main ideas in longer selections, have the pupils carry out this procedure:

1. Find the main ideas in the selection, by the procedure discussed under *Main ideas.*
2. As the pupils skim to find each main idea, have them decide upon two or three of the most important facts which should be remembered in connection with the main point.
3. Have the pupils read the whole selection rapidly in order to fill in the background. Do not let them *study* at this point. Set a time limit and make it short.
4. Take up the main ideas, one at a time, and conduct actual practice (out loud) by the group in reciting the details connected with each main idea.
5. Call attention to the *number* of main ideas
6. Have them memorize the list of main ideas (there will not be many). Conduct oral practice until you are sure most of them have learned the list.

When you have completed this procedure, the pupils should be prepared to answer essay type questions or to carry on oral discussions about the main ideas connected with the general topic and about the details which support any given main idea. This is necessary if they are to develop independence in their studying and is especially important for pupils of higher capacity, who should be encouraged to use their own initiative and not rely upon too much direction in their work.

OTHER STUDY SKILLS

Procedures for teaching skimming, finding main ideas, and recall have been described in detail because these three skills are fundamental to all study reading. There are, however, a number of other skills, practice in which would help the pupils to do a more effective job of studying: speed and comprehension work, outlining, SQ3R method of textbook study (Robinson: *Effective Study*), use of index and table of contents. Discussion of these skills will be found in the books listed in the bibliography.

CONCLUSION

All reading is a complex business, and study reading, in particular, makes great demands upon the pupils, few of whom ever acquire the necessary skills without assistance. Teachers of content subjects can do a service to their pupils by training them to get and retain the meaning of what they read. This will help to make them self-reliant readers and at the same time will give them mastery of some of the basic material needed in their courses.

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Another Road to International Understanding

By Mary Elizabeth Fowler

We should be aware of the human feelings which are common to members of all races and nationalities, rather than the characteristics which make one group different from another.

Within the last two decades, millions of Americans have traveled to every part of the world, both as soldiers during World War II and the Korean War, and as tourists—over half a million each summer in the last few years. In a world in which nations are only hours away from one another by air, the attitudes of Americans abroad make a powerful impact on the citizens of countries with which we must cooperate for a peaceful world. Consequently the intolerant provincial becomes a potential threat to amicable international relations. Yet most of the Americans whose attitudes and behavior abroad are leaving ineradicable impressions have been through our public schools without, apparently, becoming aware that all peoples in the world cannot be expected to speak English, or that other peoples and their customs are not necessarily inferior because they are different.

Many American schools have accepted the responsibility of helping our youth achieve a better understanding of peoples and cultures beyond our shores. Much that has been written about international understanding has urged the acquisition of information about the United Nations and of facts about the achievements of other nations. In the concern with factual knowledge, however, educators often overlook the observations of social psychologists, who point out the emotional basis of attitudes, and the ability of students to memorize intellectually while emotional attitudes remain essentially unchanged.

Although teaching to promote international understanding has been thought of as primarily the province of the teacher of social studies or of geography, the teacher of literature, too, has at his command a powerful medium for influencing the social and international attitudes of readers. The appeal of literature to the emotions and the tendency of the reader to identify himself with characters in books make it possible for youth to experience life with members of other countries and to share the human feelings which are common to members of all races and nationalities.

Whether or not the teacher intends it, the attitudes of adolescents toward other peoples are being shaped by the selections encountered in the literary anthologies which are standard reading in most American secondary schools. It is evident that English teachers need to become aware of the kinds of attitudes which adolescents develop from the reading of these texts, and of the ways in which foreign peoples are presented in them.

A study of recent anthologies[1] indicates a growing concern of editors and publishers with the need for providing more literature leading to international understanding. Although many books have sections designed for this purpose such as "Bridges to Other Worlds," "Growing Up in Other Lands," or "People Overseas," the way in which foreign people are presented in anthologies for adolescents raises many questions about the attitudes which American youth may form as they read these texts. The teacher of literature may find help in thinking over some pertinent facts about the anthologies used in high schools.

SELECTION OF LITERATURE FOR ANTHOLOGIES

The selection of literature for anthologies presents peculiar problems to the editor concerned with promoting international understanding. The increasing quantity of good literature in translation and of books written by Americans and Englishmen who have had intimate acquaintance with other countries allows the editor to select the pieces most likely to widen the understanding of readers. Four basic questions may be asked in evaluating the usefulness of selections in anthologies to further international understanding.

How comprehensively are the aspects of life in other countries presented in these anthologies?

Literary materials which give students a feeling for the customs and mores of family life, courtship and marriage, religious beliefs and socio-economic patterns, recreation, arts and crafts, are of particular value

1. *Literature for International Understanding:* A Study of the presentation of Foreign Peoples and Cultures in Secondary School Literature Anthologies, by Mary Elizabeth Fowler. (Unpublished Ph. D. Dissertation, New York University, 1954.) The study was based on an evaluation of the literature about foreign countries in forty-six literature anthologies for secondary schools published or revised between 1940 and 1950.

in presenting a rounded picture of a culture. Some pieces, rich in such details, are included in these books and present such a wide cross-section of life that the reader is enabled to develop feeling for the life in a foreign country. These pieces are in the minority, however, in the average anthology.

What representation is given in the selections to the literary heritage of a nation?

One useful function of the literary anthology is to help the student recognize that there is a great heritage of literature of many countries besides England and America. Yet, since some degree of literary sophistication or reading background is necessary before the reader can become well-versed in the literature of a culture, the selections chosen for this purpose often fail to meet the test of adolescent reading interest. A poem of Goethe's, a translated Latin poem, or a sketch by Pliny represents the literary heritage but may reveal less about people in other countries than much available fiction, drama, and biography by great world writers.

What adolescent needs or interests are represented in the literature studied in anthologies?

Studies in reading indicate that adolescents are interested in stories about boys and girls their own age, and that acceptance among their peers, achievement, adjustment to the opposite sex, breaking away from family control, finding heroes and models, and choosing vocational goals are important themes for such stories. If international understanding is the goal, some consideration for the basic concern of the adolescent with his own problems is essential in selecting literature about foreign people. This need not mean a watering down of literature, since much good literature in translation is available in which such interests are explored. The need to achieve independence from family control is, for instance, movingly illustrated in books showing youth in many cultures meeting this universal problem: Santha Rama Rau's *Home to India;* Jade Snow Wong's *Fifth Chinese Daughter;* Youghill Kang's *The Grass Roof.*

Do the heroes and models presented in biography and fiction represent worthy ideals of brotherhood?

The adolescent, psychologists tell us, seeks heroes and models with whom to identify. We limit his range unfairly if the only models we provide are American and British, when the world's great men are within his reach in the literature of biography. National heroes, likewise, should have a place in his reading if he is to respect the achievements of other nations. The American youngster hears of George Washington from infancy, but he may be graduated from high school without having heard of Simon Bolivar, the great South American liberator, whose dramatic achievements should be familiar to every resident of the Western Hemisphere. The selfless sacrifice of Madame Curie, the humanitarian work of Albert Schweitzer, Louis Braille, and Louis Pasteur have deep international significance, and belong in the heritage of every adolescent modelling his life and ambitions after the pattern of great men and women.

EVALUATING THE PRESENTATION OF FOREIGN PEOPLES AND CULTURES IN LITERATURE

In the selection of literature about foreign peoples, teachers need to think of several basic questions about the way in which these peoples and their cultures are presented in reading for adolescents. Studies in psychology and sociology have pointed to some of the most significant causes of international tensions and of prejudice, and to attitudes which are most likely to lead to a misunderstanding. The following questions may prove helpful for teachers who desire to present foreign literature to their students.

Do authors and editors indicate awareness of the concepts of culture of the anthropologists?

Study of recent texts indicates that little explanation of cultural differences and the reasons for them is given to students except for occasional phrases indicating that "people everywhere are human beings." These books do little to acquaint the student with the wide cultural variations in patterns of family life, work, worship, and recreation. Little editorial help is given students in understanding differences in custom or the reasons for differences, which are usually dismissed as "strange," "exotic," or "queer." Editors of texts (and teachers) would do well to remember the caution of the editors of the *United Nations World* to its staff members: "No place, culture, custom, or people is 'strange' (to whom?), 'exotic,' 'queer,' or 'bizarre'."

Are racial and national concepts handled with scientific validity, and is there an attempt to clarify these concepts?

The effect of confused thinking about race and nationality as a source of international tensions has been frequently emphasized by sociologists and anthropologists. Authors of pieces in texts often speak inaccurately of Arabs, Poles, Hawaiians and Americans as "races," yet only two or three books attempt to clarify concepts of race and nationality for readers.

Are attitudes of superiority to members of other countries and cultures evident in the selections?

Ethnocentrism, or the tendency to view one's own nation or group as superior to all others, is one of the important barriers to international understanding, according to social scientists. Unconsciously condescending attitudes are frequent in literary pieces about Africa, China, Mexico, in references to "natives," "humble peasants," and "brown boys." Prejudicial terms ("peasant," "ignorant," "poor," "little," etc.) are often used to refer to foreign peoples in otherwise favorable selections. Editors and teachers can help students become aware of this human tendency in themselves and in literature they are reading.

Is the use of language inimical to international understanding?

A prominent factor affecting international relations is the tendency to think of foreign peoples in racial and national stereotypes. Frequent in literary pieces in these books are comments which refer to "temperamental Poles," "impassive Chinese," "child-like natives," and "typical" members of this or that nationality. Language often conveys attitudes of authors and editors through the use of prejudicial terms and condescending and emotionally-toned phrases and terms ("only a peasant," "little people of the world," "Nip," "Kraut," etc.). Students are often asked in editorial questions to generalize about "typical" members of a nation, or to make ethical and moral judgments about characters. The teacher's awareness of students' semantic reactions to the language in which texts are written can be all-important in preventing misunderstanding.

Is there recognition of the importance of international interdependence and the contributions of all nations?

In most volumes, genuine attempts on the part of editors to emphasize ideals of human brotherhood, understanding people of other countries, and the interdependence of nations are observable. The importance of rising above a narrow kind of nationalism to international cooperation, as well as respect for the strong national ties of peoples to their homelands, is the theme of many selections of literature.

Does the literature glorify war and military exploits to a greater extent than peaceful cooperation between countries?

Definite trends toward an emphasis on the values of peace and the cooperation of nations to that end may be observed in the choice of selections and the editorial comment in these texts. Few pieces are devoted to heroic war exploits, while many others illustrate the advantages of peace, the destructiveness and horror of war, the urgent need for international cooperation in an atomic age, and the peaceful settlement of border disputes between countries.

Do the editorial comment and questions contribute to the development of informed attitudes about other countries?

Editorial comment often determines the attitudes which a piece of literature may leave with the reader. Prejudicial or unconsciously condescending editorial treatment may counteract the potential value for understanding of a worthwhile literary piece. Some recent texts make a valuable contribution by providing an understandable social and historical context for the foreign literature presented.

Do the illustrations included with these selections promote international understanding?

Illustrations which emphasize the picturesque (women in baboushkas, peasant costumes), scenes of violence (riots, revolutions, floggings), or those which emphasize the unique or exotic elements of a culture (sacred bulls in India) often bear the burden of representing a country pictorially in a series of texts and may often contribute to false or distorted impressions of a culture. Pictures which show people of the world occupied with the basic concerns of all human beings—family life, work, worship—help the reader to feel that human values overshadow differences between citizens of various countries.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR TEXTBOOK IMPROVEMENT

An evaluation of the presentation of literature representing foreign peoples in anthologies points to the following suggestions for improvement of texts which may contribute to the teaching of international understanding:

(1) In dealing with foreign literature editors, authors, and teachers need to know and apply the understandings of semantics about the effects of prejudicial language on international attitudes.

(2) Literary anthologies need to include a larger proportion of carefully selected and edited materials.

(3) More literature in translation, suited to adolescents, and providing a picture of life in a culture should be included.

(4) Illustrations should be chosen to avoid stereotyped concepts of foreign peoples and emphasis on differences.

(5) Biographical materials about the contributions of world leaders to goals of humanitarianism, international cooperation, and the arts should be included.

The growing body of literature in translation in anthologies provides ample material for the teacher who wishes to use books now available for promoting international understanding. This kind of teaching makes severe demands on the background of the English teacher. An understanding of the basic concepts of patterns of culture, race and nationality, human relations, and of adolescent psychology, as well as knowledge about the ways in which language affects attitudes, seem essentials in dealing with foreign literature. The teacher dedicated to this goal will seek ways of extending his own knowledge of a wide range of translated literature and of that written about other countries. Effective teaching cannot well proceed on fewer qualifications than these, but the teacher who has helped his students become less provincial, more aware of the interdependence of peoples in the world, will have provided another important road to international understanding.

Use of Audio-Visual Aids in Twelfth-Grade Composition

By Amy Glazier

The teacher who undertakes the task of assisting a group of students in the development of their own powers of expression must realize, first of all, that if he has thirty students in his class, he will have thirty different challenges to his skill and resourcefulness. In English, perhaps more than in any other subject, the student's development is very vitally a part of him. All of his previous years' experiences, in school and out, combine to make him say what he says in the way *he* says it. No one else will think or feel quite as he does; no one else will make quite the same use of the language which is common to all.

It is the English teacher's compelling task to help the student find his own manner of wielding the tool of language in a continually more complex world. He can learn to use it effectively only by using it purposefully. It is in providing the purpose that one finds the great value of meaningful experience. The alert teacher can make use of audio-visual materials to bring this experience more completely into the classroom.

Many schools in New York state offer in the twelfth grade a number of elective courses: speech, written expression, drama, world literature, creative writing, to name a few. These courses offer a challenge to the teacher; they present new problems and at the same time highlight the old ones. To show that some of these problems may be met by new methods is the purpose of this discussion.

The three principal aims of the separate senior course in English expression are (1) to prepare for successful use of written English in college, in the business world, and in personal affairs; (2) to develop clear and logical thinking; (3) to teach concepts of self-criticism as applied to writing.

Such a composition class is engaged in two main activities: (1) writing and (2) studying the quality (both mechanical and literary) of what has been written. It seems that in both these activities there is considerable opportunity for better and clearer teaching and for increasing motivation by the use of audio-visual materials.

Making the Assignment

Let us consider first the question of motivation. As every English teacher knows, there is no assignment more deadly than the unadorned, "Write a composition for Wednesday." Unfortunately there are still English teachers who make such assignments.

Putting ourselves in the position of the student, for a moment, we may visualize what such an assignment does to him. To him a composition probably means a series of some 100 to 500 words, an arbitrary standard set by his teacher either now or earlier in the course. Unless he is an unusual student (there are always a few who actually like to write), he probably has nothing to say in these 100 or 500 words. He has many ideas, of course, has had many experiences, is thinking about something most of the time. But the flow of ideas from his mind onto the paper is stopped by the roadblock: "a composition for Wednesday."

Unless help comes to him he will probably do one of two things. He will decide on something which in some remote way has been suggested to him as a "good subject." Perhaps he has heard an older brother or sister mention it, or he has found it in a list of exercises in his composition book, or he has pestered family and acquaintances for it. He may know nothing about it, but if it is a "good subject" he will use it.

Or, failing the discovery of a "good subject," he will not do the assignment at all.

Given the subject under these circumstances, he is bound to approach it without enthusiasm, his eye on the 500th word. He will not pour out his ideas first, and then try to organize them. He will not think of the structure of his composition at all. He will pay only a small measure of attention to the "how" of his sentences and paragraphs. He is writing a "composition." He expects it to have errors, which may or may not be pointed out to him, but probably will not be explained, anyway.

A better teacher than the one who assigns barely "a composition for Wednesday" will try to motivate the assignment and direct the students so that they may draw upon material in their own experience which has meaning for them and about which they may be encouraged to *want* to say something.

He will feel that time can profitably be spent in a class discussion of some matter impinging upon the lives of his students, so that their minds will begin to handle the subject and to share a wider range of ideas before each student sits down alone to do his composition.

Encouraging the Flow of Ideas

If he is aware of the wide range of help which audio-visual aids offer, the teacher will turn to them

in this phase of the composition assignment. First, and most simply, he will make use of the chalkboard to keep a record of ideas that come from the class discussion. If the discussion is well conducted, when it is finished there should be many more ideas on the chalkboard than were in any one student's mind at the beginning. The use of the chalkboard in this way is practically indispensable in making use of class discussions as a source of composition materials.

But what will the discussion be about? Perhaps the teacher will start the class on a subject which he believes to be of interest to the students. More profitably, it seems, he may let the students themselves choose the topics they wish to discuss. In a small class, each student may assume responsibility for conducting one or more of these discussions, while the teacher takes the role of keeper of ideas in the expanding chalkboard outline. Or the students may work together in small groups, for the security which group-feeling always supplies. There may be demonstrations, dramatized experiences, exhibits. The slide-projector may be used to provide the stimulation to start discussion. The opaque projector may provide pictures, diagrams and drawings to accompany or supply a springboard for ideas. Filmstrips and motion pictures, if not too long, may be used in the same way. Maps and globes may have their place.

In this use of audio-visual materials, the English teacher should not allow his own prejudices to direct discussion exclusively to literary or language offerings. Student interests spread through all of time and space, and it is interest that we are talking about here. As Bacon said, the student may also say, "I have taken all knowledge to be my province."

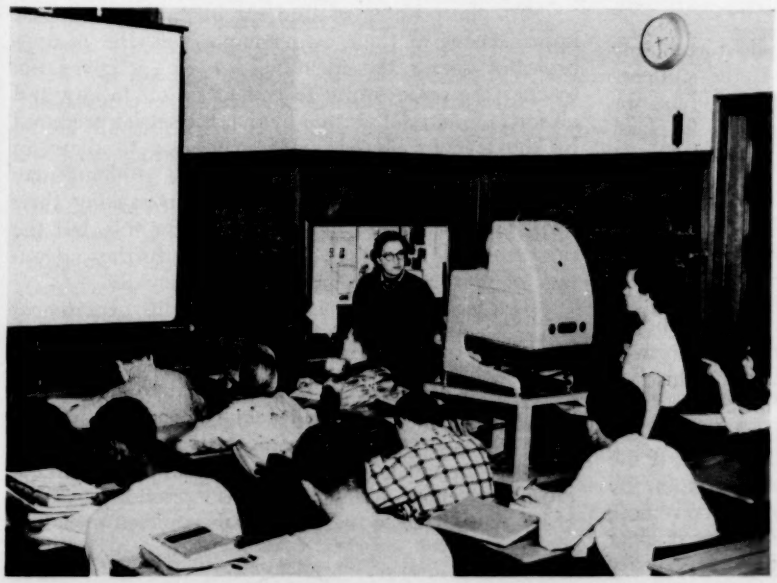
It would be a profitless task to list even a small part of the subjects which the teacher can open up to students for use in this type of learning activity. It will be his task to provide suggestions and help in finding relevant audio-visual aids for the presentation of the students' interests. For example, a student who plans to take a medical course in college may wish to present some of the problems and satisfactions of medicine as a career. With the teacher's help the may secure such free films as the following:

> "For a Better Tomorrow" (Osteopathic Foundation), which deals with the doctor shortage and the training of a doctor.
> "And the Earth Shall Give Back Life" (E. R. Squibb and Sons), the story of penicillin.

If the school has films or filmstrips for use in vocational counseling, these may be borrowed. The student will perhaps be able to make a recording of an interview with a member of the medical profession, perhaps the school doctor, and this can be presented to the class.

In using audio-visual materials in this way, the teacher must rely almost completely upon free materials, since most schools would not countenance the spending of money to assist individual student reports. Free materials are, however, both numerous and valuable.

As in any use of audio-visual materials, certain precautions must be taken. A model must be set for the student leader of the discussion. In this respect it might be well for the teacher to lead the first discussion himself, thereby demonstrating how materials should be presented and how the discussion should be directed. If filmstrips, opaque projections, slides or movies are to be used, a routine for the proper and quick preparation of lighting and ventilation should be established. Standards of relevancy and good taste in the discussion should be worked out by the class. The length of recorded material or of films or filmstrips should be carefully checked, to be



Courtesy of Newton, Mass. Public Schools

In preparation for a writing assignment the opaque projector is being used as "a springboard for ideas."

sure that plenty of time will be left for discussion. The material to be presented by the student must be previewed by him and should also be previewed by the teacher. The student should have an opportunity to plan his presentation.

How exactly will this procedure lead a class to better composition? There is no doubt that a visual presentation of the problems involved in becoming a doctor, the type of classes he must attend, the hours of laboratory work and the practical experience in clinics, will have a greater impact upon the imaginations and sympathies of a group of young people than any mere verbal discussion could hope to have. If a visual aid is not procurable, even the recording of an interview with an actual member of the profession will have an authenticity no book can have. By these means the students come closer to the direct, purposeful experience which is the most strongly motivating of all. As they approach direct experience, interest increases, minds become more active, questions arise. The students will begin to project themselves into the experience: Would I be able to stand all those years of hard study? Is so much basic scientific work really necessary? How would I feel about that old woman at the clinic? These are some of the questions that may arise in individual students' minds, leading to discussion by the whole class of such topics as: How much does a medical education cost? Would it be possible to "work your way" through medical school? How have the other sciences contributed to medicine? What about socialized medicine? From these or from any of the many other topics which might arise in the classroom discussion, every student should derive something to write about. Even if one of the students is not vitally interested in the subject, he can not escape the experience of perceiving different viewpoints, and if he chooses to do no more than summarize what those viewpoints are, he will have something to say. Most students will become much more actively involved than this.

The written composition should follow as closely as possible after the class discussion. If the students are to write at home, the assignment should be for the next day; if the writing is to be done in class, the very next meeting of the group should be set aside for it.

I have illustrated the use of audio-visual materials only in the discussion of medicine as a vocation. The possible topics are legion. Matter for discussion may be chosen from sports, science, natural history, history, literature, music, art—from any field in which a student has a genuine interest. Some one may perform a chemistry experiment. Another student may illustrate with a globe the military positions of Europe and Asia. It will not be difficult for the teacher to get the class to come forth with ideas of their own if the teacher sets the example in the first discussion by drawing upon some interest of his own, not too remote from those of his students, and if he makes it clear to the class that he holds no brief for the superiority of literary or intellectual topics.

Evaluating Student Writing

Once the composition is written, neither the student nor the teacher should feel that he is finished with it. In a class in which two days each week may be spent in actual composition, at least two more must be spent in a consideration of what has been written and how to make the writing of the next paper better than the last. If there is not a constant improvement in usage, organization and style throughout the year, the purpose of the composition course is not being fulfilled.

The most direct and forceful way to help students to correct errors is to direct each student's attention to his own paper and the faults in it. This the teacher tries to do with his red pencil markings in the margin or in the body of the composition and by his comment at the end. Unfortunately, all too often the student ignores these markings and merely glances at the grade before throwing his paper into the wastebasket. For years teachers have battled this habit by requiring the errors to be corrected and the paper returned for regrading. This helps, but often the correction is not a true working out of the problem, but a guess, or an answer—not an explanation—supplied by the student across the aisle.

It is well in dealing with errors in composition to concentrate the attention of the class upon a few at a time. The student is most interested in the errors he has made himself, and while the textbook or workbook may be used as a reference book or for a quick review of usage and construction, the persistent errors may be more graphically brought home to the students by projecting with the opaque projector a page of student writing, or a number of errors of the same type collected by the teacher from a number of papers and assembled on one sheet. With the errors thus set forth before the class, the teacher may be able to clear up a point of usage or organization which had previously remained elusive.

For the training of students in the criticism and improvement of their own composition, the opaque projector seems the ideal aid to use. It gives the teacher the opportunity to call attention to any and all sorts of material written by the students or prepared by the teacher himself. He may wish to show an outline, or a bibliography, so that the students may observe the correct form to follow in making their own. The chalkboard might be used for this, but the projector will save time and have the further advantage of presenting the material more vividly.

It is too often assumed that pupils' life experiences automatically supply the content necessary for good work in composition. Teachers are disappointed because students seem to have so little to say that is worthwhile; composition teaching becomes an arid process of correcting mechanical errors. Audio-visual aids are one means of priming the pump and making ideas flow more freely. They also provide a means of helping pupils to realize the values of self-criticism.

Suggestions for Teaching Listening

By Margaret J. Early

Today most teachers are learning not to give an assignment in reading without first making sure that pupils have both a purpose for reading and the necessary skills for succeeding with the assignment. Yet many good teachers are still exhorting their pupils to "Listen!" as though anyone who can hear knows how to listen. It would be just as reasonable to suppose that because children can talk before they come to school they need no training in how to speak.

The suggestions offered are of two kinds: devices and techniques for the development of specific skills, and activities in which practice in listening skills may be achieved. The list is a compilation of suggestions that may prove useful in two ways: (1) in the construction of a series of exercises for the systematic teaching of one or more listening skills; (2) in selecting activities for any integrated teaching unit.

Because listening skills are often listed in the professional literature as purposeful, accurate, critical, and responsive or appreciative, these headings are used in organizing the suggestions offered here. But no clear-cut line sets apart one type of listening from the rest. All listening should be accurate and purposeful whether it is responsive or critical, and developing appreciations in listening, as in reading, is a continuous process running concurrently with the developmet of each of the other skills.

PURPOSEFUL AND ACCURATE LISTENING

Vocabulary Skills

1. Before reading a selection or playing a recording, give pupils a list of words for which they are to listen. Following the listening situation, ask them to tell you (probably by objective test items) how each word was used in context. If the selection contains some words used more than once, each time with a different shade of meaning, pupils may be asked to point out how context determined meaning.

2. To increase awareness of unknown words and to foster the idea of demanding meaning in everything they hear, say to pupils before reading a selection: "Stop me when I come to a word you do not understand."

3. Prepare a series of statements that contain contradictions and absurdities. Pupils will enjoy making up exercises of this kind and tape recording them to simulate radio announcements. The class may be divided into teams and points awarded for the number of absurdities spotted. A simple exercise of this type: "Now the weather forecast. High cloudiness tonight with some sunshine. Chance of showers tomorrow. Highest temperatures in mid-forties."

Recalling in Sequence

The old game "In Grandmother's Trunk" can teach the importance of listening accurately and recalling in sequence. The first pupil states: "In grandmother's trunk there was a patchwork quilt." Subsequent pupils repeat in proper order the objects named and add another.

Following Directions

1. Have pupils write original directions which may be carried out by using pencil and paper. For example: "Make an X on the third line from the top of paper. Make three zeros on sixth line from top of paper. Draw a slanting line connecting X with middle zero." Collect these directions and read selected ones aloud, once only, as pupils carry out the orders. Have pupils correct each other's papers and analyze reasons for errors.

2. Or have pupils write a series of directions for acts that can be performed in the classroom. One pupil then reads aloud five steps that another is to perform after he has heard all five. Pupils will think of directions like these: (1) Go to bulletin board and place thumb tack in top left corner. (2) Face the blackboard and say first seven letters of the alphabet. (3) Open and close door. (4) Place dictionary on window shelf. (5) Return to your seat passing teacher's desk.

3. You can point up the serious need for following spoken directions accurately by reading aloud Air Raid Warning instructions and safety rules. Radio announcements directing listeners to send for materials also make appropriate content for exercises of this type.

Listening for Main Ideas

Selections to be read to class may come from three sources: appropriately graded reading-skills texts, newspapers and magazines, and textbooks in the content subjects. Both the material read and the response required should become progressively difficult. Pupils may be asked to respond by:

—selecting paragraph title from several given

(Adapted from Warren English Project Bulletin No. 4, *Adjusting to Individual Differences in English: Listening*, prepared by Margaret J. Early, Warren Research Fellow; edited by Dr. M. Agnella Gunn, Professor of Education in charge of Teaching of English, Boston University.)

A PARTIAL LIST OF SKILLS FOR LISTENING

Purposefully and Accurately

- Understanding meaning of words from context
- Understanding effect on listeners of speaker's voice
- Listening to answer to question
- Listening to question with intent of answering
- Listening for main ideas
- Listening for details
- Understanding relationship of details to main points
- Following steps in directions
- Following sequence in
  - —plot development
  - —character development
  - —speaker's argument
- Recognizing speaker's purpose
- Recognizing speaker's plan or pattern
- Recognizing repetition of the same idea in different words
- Repeating what has been heard
- Taking notes and outlining

Critically

- Distinguishing between fact and opinion
- Distinguishing between emotive and report language
- Detecting bias and prejudice
- Evaluating speaker's argument
- Recognizing propaganda
- Drawing inferences and making judgments
- Checking misinterpretations by asking intelligent questions
- Understanding sales pressure

Appreciatively

- Listening to visualize
- Listening for rhythms of speech
- Recognizing tone and mood
- Appreciating speaker's style
- Interpreting character from dialogue
- Understanding effect on listeners of speaker's vocal qualities and gestures
- Understanding effect of audience on listeners' reactions

—writing own titles
—identifying main idea from several given
—stating main idea in own words

To lend variety to this type of practice, you may have pupils express main ideas as headlines, news flashes, telegrams, or S-O-S messages when the content suggests such devices.

Listening for Information

1. Slow learners especially acquire much information through listening. To give controlled practice in this skill, present information in one of the following ways: (1) Read aloud informational articles of the type found in the *Reader's Digest*, *Read, My Weekly Reader*, and *Junior Scholastic*. (2) Use tape recordings of pupils' reports. It is a good idea to build a collection on tape of interesting factual reports just for this purpose. (3) Present a sound film of the information rather than the story type, choosing one that relates to a topic currently being studied. Tell the pupils before the presentation that they will be asked to answer a number of questions based on what they hear. Use these questions for a quiz session in which points are awarded to teams for correct answers. If it proves necessary, re-present the informational article to check accuracy.

2. Tape record from radio five-minute news and sports broadcasts. Have pupils listen, then write down all the news items they can remember.

ACTIVITIES

Opportunities for listening purposefully and accurately are found in the following activities:

—Reports on out-of-class listening experiences: radio and TV speeches, discussions, and dramatic programs.

—"Post-mortems" of assembly speakers. Three pupils may be asked to report on same assembly program. Have class analyze reports.

—Interviews conducted in class and outside.

—Classroom visitors.

—Group discussions. One member acts as secretary and reports results of discussion.

CRITICAL LISTENING

Distinguishing between Fact and Opinion

Exercises to help pupils to develop this skill in reading may also be presented orally. Since published materials are rare, it is economical to combine instruction in reading critically with aural exercises that serve the same purpose. The first step is a series of simple statements from which pupils select expressions of fact or opinion. As a next step, prepare a series of paragraphs in which pupils can find facts embedded in opinion. Advertisements are good sources. You may have students rephrase the advertisement omitting expressions of opinion.

Recognizing Emotive Language

1. Pupils may listen for words that appeal to the emotions or to the senses: (1) in lists of words containing examples of both emotive and report language; (2) in pairs of sentences, one of which describes an incident or object in report language, the other in emotive language; (3) in poetry and advertising.

2. An effective introduction to the study of emotive language, on a level that is appropriate to intermediate and junior high school pupils, is the film "Do Words Ever Fool You?" (Coronet, 1948. 10 min.) The film dramatizes the dangers of word confusions, name-calling, and "loaded" words in oral as well as written communication.

3. A device which emphasizes not only the importance of accurate listening but also the effect of emotive language is suggested by Althea Beery (see bibliography). Four or five pupils leave the room. While they are out, the teacher shows class "Rumor Clinic," a three-frame filmstrip distributed by the Anti-Defamation League, 12 Fifth Avenue, New York. One pupil then reports what he has seen to one of the pupils who left the room. He, in turn, reports to the next, and so on. Then all five pupils tell the class their versions. The class analyzes why the reports differ and discusses how prejudices may have slanted understanding. Do we hear what we want to hear? Do

the same words mean different things to different people?

4. On the same date, record two news broadcasts, one that illustrates factual reporting and one that illustrates analysis and commentary on this news. Have pupils compare language used in the two broadcasts and discuss the different effects of each on the listener.

Checking on Reliability of Speaker

1. Have pupils keep a record of persons appearing on forums, panels, and round-tables together with the topics they were called on to discuss. Using *Who's Who in America* and the pooled information of the class, pupils judge a speaker on two points: How much experience has he had in the subject on which he spoke? Does anything in his experience suggest that he might be biased? A similar kind of checking may be based on endorsements of products in radio and TV advertising.

2. Pupils should also learn to check a speaker's references to authority. We are probably more willing to accept a vague reference in speech than in writing and often are beguiled into accepting as fact any statement introduced by: *they say, it is believed, informed sources report, intelligent people say, experts agree.* Pupils should note such expressions and be prepared to ask, "*Who* says? *What* informed sources?"

APPRECIATIVE LISTENING

Encouraging Responsive Listening

1. Some teachers use the following simple device to show the need for sympathetic listening. Pupils come to class prepared to tell a number of "good stories"—anecdotes, interesting facts from their reading, family jokes. As each pupil talks informally the others listen for leads that suggest another story. The effort to keep the conversational ball rolling becomes a game, with points awarded for smooth transitions from story to story. Teachers give special credit to pupils who provide a bridge between two speakers.

2. A plus-value of group story telling is the contribution it makes to responsive listening. As part of a unit on folklore, pupils may spin their own yarns, each one adding a sentence or two to help the story grow. A record of the first efforts can be edited later for the finished product. Similarly, dramatizing a story or preparing a radio script, with the actors developing their lines orally, not only gives effective practice in listening courteously but also stimulates creative thinking.

3. Probably the most profitable kind of notetaking is a record of one's own thoughts while listening, not the speaker's. Give pupils practice in notetaking of this kind. Before reading a selection, tell them that they are to think, while listening, of other topics they would like to investigate, questions they would like to ask the speaker, and ways in which they can use ideas presented.

Appreciating Radio and Television

Activities that appear frequently in units on radio and television are summarized below.

—Pupils prepare rating sheets and use them in at-home listening.

—Pupils conduct poll of classmates' radio and TV listening habits.

—Pupils keep television log on blackboard or bulletin board, reporting programs seen and rating them.

—Volunteer listening committees keep class informed on good programs for the week.

—Pupils discuss programs for children and adults, compare parents' tastes with theirs.

—Pupils write letters to studios praising excellent productions.

—Pupils report on reading they have done as a result of watching television.

—Class visits radio or TV studio.

—Class takes over local station to present play, panel, or book reviews.

—A "hit parade" of favorite programs drawn up at intervals of three or four months may show changes in tastes.

—A radio and television review column may be written for school paper; or a fan magazine may be published by class.

—Pupils discuss balancing their leisure-time activities to give fair proportion to televiewing.

PROMOTING A DESIRE TO IMPROVE LISTENING

Of course, promoting good listening habits, as improving pupils' proficiency in any of the language arts, is done best by giving pupils a reason for listening, something worth listening to, and skill in listening well. The techniques discussed above are directed toward these ends. Nevertheless, it will be profitable to spend some time in talking *about* the listening process and establishing the desire to improve skills. Depending upon the maturity of the pupils, discussion may center around such questions as:

—How much time is spent in listening? For what purposes?

—Is listening or reading the better avenue for learning? For entertainment?

—Is the effect on the listener different in these situations: listening alone to radio or TV? Listening with a group of friends? Listening in the classroom or assembly? Why do television performers prefer to play before studio audiences? Why is laughter sometimes dubbed into transcribed programs?

—How do you listen when you know you are expected to answer? In social situations, when is accurate listening imperative?

As a motivational device, teachers and pupils may cooperate on a "Let's Listen" week. Activities during this week may include the following:

—Pupils agree not to ask for repetitions of directions or explanations, establishing a fine when pact is broken.
—In every class, oral programs are emphasized, with pupils rather than teachers taking the lead.
—Pupils make posters illustrating good and bad listening habits.
—Pupils conduct experiments in listening; for example, compare comprehension in reading and listening.
—Room committees volunteer to improve "listening climate" by reducing distracting noises.
—Pupils plan assembly program illustrating importance of listening. In one type of program, some pupils may demonstrate radio and television equipment, others may dramatize U.N. meetings and emphasize the importance of listening for understanding, still others may focus on entertainment via TV. In another type of program, pupils may present skits in which poor listening habits cause confusions.

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Margaret J. Early, the author of *SUGGESTIONS FOR TEACHING LISTENING,* received her Doctorate from Boston University's School of Education where she was a Warren Research Fellow for two years. She is now an Assistant Professor of English at Syracuse University where she is also working in the reading clinic. She has had editorial experience with Houghton-Mifflin Publishing Co.

GETTING YOUR MONEY'S WORTH FROM AUDIO-VISUAL EQUIPMENT is the work of ***Joseph J. Devitt,*** who is the Secondary Supervisor in the Maine State Department of Education. From 1945-1951 he was Principal of the Carmel, Maine High School. He received his degrees from Bridgewater State Teachers College and Boston University. Several of his articles have been published in educational journals.

READING TECHNIQUES FOR THE CONTENT SUBJECTS was written by ***Gertrude B. Stearns,*** Associate Director of the High School and College Reading Center at Boston University. Among other positions, she has worked at Harvard Business School and the Keene, New Hampshire Public Library. She has written *English in the Small High School* and several articles for professional journals. Mrs. Stearns is interested in music and dramatics and has directed a light opera company and, for two years, a summer theatre chorus.

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ANOTHER ROAD TO INTERNATIONAL UNDERSTANDING is the contribution of ***Mary Elizabeth Fowler,*** who is an Associate Professor of English at the Teachers College of Connecticut. She was an assistant instructor in English at New York University's School of Education from 1949-1951. Traveling is Dr. Fowler's main hobby and various "wanderings" include trips to Europe, South America and 46 of the 48 states.

Before becoming Director of Instructional Service in the Racine, Wisconsin Public Schools nine years ago, ***Harris E. Russell*** was Principal of the Roosevelt Elementary School in Racine. He has taught summers at the University of Wisconsin, Miami University in Oxford, Ohio and Emory University in Atlanta, Georgia. Mr. Russell is particularly interested in the study of Abraham Lincoln and general semantics.

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Joy Elmer Morgan, Editor of the *N.E.A. Journal* and associated with the National Education Association since 1920, has just retired—being 65 years *young.* He is the author of A TEACHER'S PRAYER on the inside front cover. Last month he founded The Senior Citizens of America, a service organization with headquarters in Washington, D. C. The popular Personal Growth Leaflets which he edited have been distributed all over the world—nearly fifty million copies!

The annual American Junior Red Cross Enrollment Poster, 1955, painted by Joseph Binder, well known artist, emphasizes the willingness of boys and girls in schools to serve others as volunteers by joining the American Junior Red Cross.

NEW BOOKS

Supervision of Instruction

Harold Spears, in his new book, *Improving the Supervision of Instruction*[1] offers a challenge to all those who are interested in improving the supervision of instruction in public schools—and who in education is not? Beginning with the invitation to supervisory leadership "to avoid generalities and get down to specifics" the book depicts the tremendous sweep from amateur supervision in America's first schools to the rapidly developing professional field today. Four major phases are noted:

1. Inspectional control of the school by laymen (clergy, school wardens, trustees, selectmen, citizens' committees); emphasis was upon observing rules and maintaining existing standards.
2. Inspectional control of the school administrators, with development of the four significant positions known today: principals, state superintendent, county superintendent and superintendent of the local district.
3. Division of responsibility, with boards of education overseeing business administration, supervision of school plant and appointment of teachers and janitors, and superintendents assuming responsibility for administration of the curriculum and supervision of teaching.
4. Present-day development toward multiple-type supervisory help, unified through democratic organization.

Since the purpose of supervision is to facilitate pupil learning, it must provide all the conditions essential to effective learning through effective teaching. Supervision is a service activity that exists only to help teachers to do their jobs better.

Whereas the supervisor was, in Colonial times, a highly specialized classroom operator, he is now to assume various responsibilities, many of them outside the classroom. In reflecting social attitudes of democracy and human relations characteristic of our times, which it must, supervision must be careful to establish lines of *responsibility* and *authority*. Line and staff organization is concerned with *responsibility; authority* is today delegated to more and more people in an attempt to use talents and ideas of numbers of persons. Duties of the central force are sometimes difficult to define: allowances have to be made for personalities and conditions *as they exist*. Although many fine shades of intangible responsibilities and relationships vary to a degree with those holding positions, sound administration calls for continued effort at establishment of functions and responsibilities of each position. The purpose of all organization should be to provide for exercise of maximum initiative, discretion, judgment and adaptation of each worker.

The 1920-1930 period is remembered for "efficiency" supervision of considerable standardization, even in the classroom visits, the follow-up conference, demonstration teaching, and an intricate system of recording teacher ratings. Unfortunately, the concept that the supervisor must find something to improve, and the fault-finding which was felt caused widespread dissatisfaction; the time was due for a new era based upon democracy in administration. Having passed through stages of inspection, teacher training, and scientific classroom management, supervision was ready to broaden into cooperative leadership. Supervision of today may not be recognized under some of its modern titles: "curriculum coordinator"; guidance director"; "research director"; "psychiatrist"; "director of instruction."

Staff positions to help the child directly were supplemented by supervisory positions set up to help the child through helping the teacher. Today's staff officers may be grouped by function: guidance; research; curriculum; and in-service training.

One of today's attempts is toward unification of these service functions. The emphasis has shifted from improvement of *instruction* to improvement of *learning*, with attention centered upon the pupil's development. Though efficient method and mechanics should be provided, it is known that no efficient mechanics can substitute for enthusiasm, initiative and ingenuity of a teacher.

Staff leadership more and more must learn to respect democratic procedures and avoid authoritarianism. Democratic procedure means the improvement of co-operative techniques, action based upon the pooling of many ideas.

The range of supervision is wide. It includes:

Service to individual teachers
Use of known school personnel and services
Particular help to probationary teachers
Evaluation of outcomes
Research applied in classroom situations
Regular visitations of classrooms
In-service programs of continued growth
Selection of instructional materials
Institutes and workshops made meaningful
Continuing curriculum study
Leadership and community services: addressing meetings, arranging demonstrations.

The spirit of supervision today recognizes that it must bring about a stimulation of instruction and in learning, satisfaction in work; unity of supervisory effort; ideas and participation in their implementation by a maximum number; encouragement, rather than discouragement; respect for persons; recognition of effort; *welcome* visits by leaders, who bring *inspiration* without uncertainty, *service* rather than dictation, *sharing* rather than ordering, *security*, rather than fear.

Concepts for democracy in modern supervision:

1. Respect for uniqueness and dignity of the human personality.
2. Faith in the power of human intelligence to solve problems.
3. The right of the individual to *share* in the policies which affect him and his group.
4. The right of the sovereign people to act through their representatives.
5. The right to equality—but not identity!—of opportunity for all.

Whereas modern supervision is functional, thus serving the child, and democratic, thus serving the teacher, it must *not* become diffused: school administration *can* be businesslike, and at the same time democratic, through orderly management of democratic procedures. With good planning and establishment of limitations, even with a multiplication of supervisory personnel between the superintendent's office and the teacher's classroom, there will be coordination and control, and no stifling of instruction or learning.

A supervisor is not to be accepted because of his position, but because of the service he renders. His challenge is to establish a common feeling of understanding based on good human relationships, and a confidence in him as one who has something to offer.

Unfortunately, whereas inefficiency in school administration is immediately observable, neglect of improvement in instruction can go on—sometimes for years—without being detected. Teachers must be stimulated to participate in the process of improvement: *participants in the planning accept responsibility for outcomes.*

A good supervision program flows out of the classroom and returns to enrich it. Teachers who can teach well are encouraged to give demonstrations for others. Supervisors must understand interplay of child, teacher and setting before improvement can be effected. The starting point is with *strengths,* rather than weaknesses.

With excellent supervision, the modern high school classroom is a workroom—not merely a study, or recitation room. Pupils, *with* teachers, and administrators are planners in the educational endeavor. The curriculum gives a meaningful, and *achievable,* offering to *each* student. Classroom methods in the new, broad high school are more important, and the schools are busier with thinking, planning, doing, than ever before.

The elementary school classroom door always, of course, has a "Welcome" sign to a *helpful* supervisor. Here, where language and reading instruction are so important, the supervisor's long-range task is to plan on a broad front, and at the same time perform the immediate task of direct aid to the teacher with his current problems—bridging constantly the gap between what is *known* about teaching and what is *done* about it.

Curriculum planning, always in process, must take in not only goals, methods, materials and attitudes, but also *evaluation of progress.* While the curriculum work concerns the instructional offering, the responsibility of the supervisor concerns professional growth of the teacher through in-service training. This may be coordinated, and the study progressively translated into improved teaching, and especially improved learning. The theory behind the in-service training in workshops, institutes and conferences is that even the best teachers and administrators are persons who have a right and should be allowed the opportunity to continue professional development.

Democratic supervision calls for more time and effort on the part of today's supervisor. The *group* process takes longer, and requires more organization and better leadership than authoritarian and apparently more efficient methods. Because today's supervision is a developing field—in transition from the older mechanical, authoritarian, critical, inspectional procedures to a shared, group-operated, mutual-improvement pattern—exceptional leadership and exceptional patience are required from those who are to lead. Today's leadership task is more challenging, and at the same time more rewarding—because today it concerns more children and more teachers as participants and benefactors of the process than ever before. Better supervision can bring better teaching, and therefore better learning, to our nation's children. This book is a valuable guide post toward that goal.

Helen T. Mackey

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CHRISTMAS ALBUM

One teacher is already looking forward to Christmas. She has her camera at school. She is snapping interesting pictures of the children as they work.

When Christmas comes she is going to let each child give his mother one for a gift. She might mount them on calendars or put them in folders.

WHEN WE DRAW

1. Fill our paper.
2. Color some things dark and some light.
3. Balance our picture.
4. Repeat our colors.
5. Make some things big, some little.

(Print your name here.)

MAPS IN FIRST GRADE, TOO

A very large map of the streets in the neighborhood of the school was placed on the bulletin board. Each child drew a picture of his own house and a picture of himself. The pictures were cut out and placed on the map in the correct place. Department of Elementary Education, Richmond, Indiana.

PHONICS IN KINDERGARTEN?

A kindergarten teacher ended the session with all the children sitting around her. She said, "If your name begins like ball, book, baby, you may get your things." Some stood up. She said, "That's right Billy, and Beth." Next she said, "If your name begins like window and wind you may get your things." "That's right, Wanda, Wilbur, and Wilma."

She tries to use different cue words on different days to keep them from memorizing and to sharpen their powers of observation.

AN IDEA WORTH REPEATING

Each child had a strip of cardboard about an inch wide and nine inches long. On it was printed the alphabet in sequence. It was used as a book marker in his dictionary.

It provided him with a visible alphabet to help him decide what comes before and what comes after when hunting for a word in the dictionary.

In one classroom the alphabet appeared across the top of the blackboard in the customary fashion except that the vowels were written with red chalk and all the rest with white or yellow chalk.

In another classroom there is a chart with the months of the year and their abbreviations. Each is accompanied with an appropriate picture.

A certain fourth grade room had a garden in a sandbox. On the wall above the garden was a map showing in diagram form the locations of the various seeds planted. Wonder if they are teaching gardening or map reading?

PROOFREADING

Go light on that red pencil. No pupil likes to see his paper come back all marked up.

Read the stories they have written. Make a list of the misspelled words and the types of errors found.

Teach a spelling lesson and one or two English lessons. Then return the papers and give them a chance to proofread and make corrections with eraser and pencil before you use the red pencil on them.

Next time suggest they do their proofreading before you get a chance at them. They might even proofread for each other, too.

Self-checking is the ultimate goal.

ARITHMETRICKS

Multiply 37 by 3 or any multiple of 3 and see what happens.

A ROOM DIRECTORY

The children had just learned to alphabetize.

They collected the names, addresses, and telephone numbers of each child in the room. They arranged them in alphabetical order, last name first.

They made a room directory to take home. They had lots of practice writing names and addresses. They learned how to use a telephone directory. They learned more about the other children in the room. The parents were quite interested in knowing more about the other children in the room and found the room directory very useful.

From "Ideas Worth Sharing"
Department of Elementary Education
Richmond, Indiana

Send your ideas for the "Try It" page.
Address:

"Try It" Editor
Journal of Education
332 Bay State Road
Boston 15, Massachusetts

Research In Reading

Although the total number of studies per year has been decreasing since 1933, the volume of research in reading still exceeds that in any other single content area. Even a selected summary such as Gray's (10) includes more than one hundred significant reports for a single year. Our space does not permit detailed consideration of any such number of research reports. Perhaps the best that we can do is observe trends in the types of research studies available and make some comments on their general implications. Since our summary is being written at the opening of the forthcoming school year, we shall include materials published in the latter part of 1953 so as to encompass one full year.

Reading Interests and Activities

Several surveys of children's interests in comics and television (16, 33) and of the reading habits of other groups (30) were reported. There is a distinct tendency on the part of those who have studied the amount of comic book reading and television viewing to consider these as an entirely unacceptable use of leisure time. These activities are often viewed as a threat to the reading habits of the younger generation. This "viewing with alarm" continues despite studies such as that of Spiegelman (27) which have pointed out the great variety of types of content, and of goals and moral attitudes among comic-strip characters and television programs. The alarmists also have ignored the fact that the time spent in televiewing is a substitute for that formerly spent in radio listening. It would appear that most of the derogatory studies are based upon the faulty assumption that these media have nothing constructive to contribute to education. We feel that television and comics should present a challenge to educators to capitalize upon their appeal to mass audiences. We would like to see some of the time now being spent in counting the pupil-hours devoted to reading comics and televiewing given over to attempts to utilize the peculiar appeals of these media for educational purposes. Rather than wasting our time in bemoaning the existence of these competitors for our pupils' attention, we might try to use their values for educational purposes.

Readability

Wide interest continues in the application of readability formulas, their validity in affecting comprehension, and efforts to broaden their use to new materials and levels. Dunnette and Maloney (6) confirmed the fact that the newer Flesch formula is superior to the original in both time taken and accuracy with which it is applied. Swanson and Fox (28) showed the differences in comprehension of the same material written in two versions, while Spache (24) described a new, simple formula for evaluating primary reading materials and offered to supply the necessary materials for using it upon request.

Reading Methods

Present-day methods of teaching beginning reading which have been termed the "look-say" or sight word method are being questioned by some researchers. The tendency on the part of some teachers to over-emphasize visual characteristics of words and gloss over other bases for word recognition has raised some doubts as to the universal values of this method. Articles in popular magazines and newspapers (31) as well as technical journals (25) have raised this question. At the same time, other studies continue to stress the superior achievement of children with phonic skills (29) as well as the need for a more eclectic use of reading methods if the teacher is to meet the needs of all children (5). Although it is probably the most effective single method for teaching reading yet evolved, many of its adherents have failed to recognize any of its inherent limitations. Many teachers have failed to realize that no one method is equally effective with all children. Despite the persistent presence of a relatively large number of reading failures, few teachers entertain the thought that some of their children might learn to read more readily by other methods. Furthermore, many teachers do not recognize how essential training in various methods of word analysis is for combined growth in vocabulary. These teachers are apparently unaware of the fact that word recognition based on gestalts or shapes of words alone becomes a cause of increasing confusion as the exposure to an ever-increasing vocabulary presents more and more words of similar pattern. Reading clinics in high schools and colleges are crowded with students who have literally no other technique for attacking a new word than "look and guess." These pupils have been exposed to phonic and structural principles. But they have not been trained to use these techniques as an integral part of the reading act. They can, for example, recall many of the basic principles of syllabication but this knowledge does not function when they are asked to divide words into syllables. It is no wonder that the parents of such pupils question whether our modern reading methods have any values and demand that the schools return to completely phonic or even alphabetical methods, which they naively think would solve this problem.

Mechanical Aids and Other Devices

Several articles have appeared supporting the claims for various mechanical aids, such as filmstrips (15), reading films (17) and devices for controlling rate (34). As has been true of many earlier studies of the values of these aids, the evidence supporting the use of filmstrips is based on flimsy and naive procedures. The grade scores from a single reading test, one which, incidentally, tends to overestimate markedly actual reading performances, is used as proof of unusual growth presumably as a result of the use of filmstrips. No attention is paid to the influence of such factors as teacher or pupil motivation or the intelligence of the pupils studied. In fact, no control groups are arranged to equalize these factors or to determine whether similar pupils who were not exposed to this device would show equal reading growth. The lack of even the minimum essentials of a scientifically designed experiment leaves us still in doubt as to the true values of filmstrips.

Wedeen's controlled study of reading progress among college freshmen yields the usual results. He found gains, particularly in rate, as the result of a rate-controlling device, were not materially greater than those obtained by a program of reading under time pressure. He did not attempt to determine whether either of the training methods resulted in gains which were real and permanent, however.

Reading in the Content Fields

With the increasing numbers of pupils, and more particularly because of the greater numbers of retarded readers, attention to the reading skills of high school pupils has grown tremendously in recent years. Many content teachers are realizing that they must take steps to improve the reading and study habits that are demanded by their content field. We see now many studies describing experiments or procedures for improving reading in high school subject matter areas (3, 20, 35). Although written for elementary teachers, Scott's article (23) contains many excellent ideas for teachers attempting to collect materials for this type of instruction.

Diagnostic and Remedial Studies

Marked interest in diagnostic and remedial problems at the secondary and college levels seems to persist in studies of the current year. Twenty-two of the papers delivered at the 1953 Reading Conference at Chicago (18) dealt with aspects of reading at these levels. Nineteen papers dealing with college and adult programs were presented at the Southwest Reading Conference (2). Several trends may be observed in these reports. One tendency is an emphasis upon a greater variety of treatment techniques in place of the more formal textual and mechanical approaches. Reading instruction for high school and college students is recognized as one aspect of the student's adjustment problem toward the solution of which all available personnel services should be brought. Other campus or school facilities such as counseling, psychological and psychiatric help are found to give results when used alone or in addition to the more common approaches of instruction in specific reading or study skills. There is considerable emphasis upon the importance of personality problems (21, 26) and the relationship between the instructor and the pupil (22).

There is a strong trend toward the broad extension of remedial training into the field of adult education. Many clinics are publishing descriptions of their programs and analyses of the reading skills of their new clients (7, 12, 14). Within a short time, we expect to see much more research in this area, as well as the publication of new training materials and tests really suited to the needs of the average adult.

New Publications

Among the new publications of general interest are Artley's manual for parents (1), Ephron's case studies of emotional difficulties in reading (8) and the two collections of papers edited by Helen M. Robinson (18, 19). Francis O. Triggs has privately published a manual on reading at the secondary level addressed to content teachers (32). Three new college-level reading workbooks have already appeared in 1954 by Glock (9), Dallmann and Sheridan (4), and Judson (13). As part of the current revision of the Curriculum Foundation readers, Gray has edited "Just Imagine," a collection of stories intended to serve as an introduction to fourth grade reading particularly for poor readers (11). This textbook is of particular significance since it represents one of the first attempts to provide materials specifically written for slower readers within the framework of a basal reading series. Perhaps this is a step toward the Utopia of having basal reading materials really suited to the varying learning rates within the average classroom.

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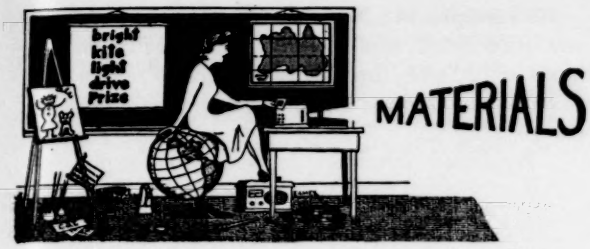


Two sets of filmstrips from Young America Films, Inc., 18 East 41st St., New York 17, N. Y. have just been released.

Indians of the Southwest, six filmstrips in full color from photographs of life today and the past, was made in full cooperation of the National Congress of American Indians, the various tribal councils, the governors of the Pueblos, and federal Indian agencies. Clothing, Food, Shelter, Arts and Crafts, Life and Customs, Dances and Ceremonies are the six areas. Cost, $30 for the set of six.

Life in Ancient Times, with six eras represented, was made with the cooperation of competent and imaginative archeologists and historians under the supervision of Dr. Arthur E. R. Boak, Professor of Ancient History, University of Michigan. Life in the New Stone Age, Life in Ancient Rome, Life in Egypt, Life in Ancient Greece, Life in a Mediaeval Castle, and Life in a Mediaeval Village, six in all, cost $33 per set of six.

Science, Nature, and Religion is the basic theme of the Moody Bible Institute film and filmstrip materials. "God of Creation", a 37 minute film, now available from rental agencies all over the country, is one of the finest films of its kind ever made. Its grandeur and simplicity are appreciated by children and adults; and to this original venture have been added others by the Moody Institute of Science. Voice of the Deep, God of the Atom, Dust or Destiny, Hidden Treasures are other titles. Filmstrips in full color have also been made from these motion picture films, (the films rent from about $12 to $17; filmstrips are sold outright for $5) and may be previewed before purchasing. Write to Don H. Parson, Director, Film Dept., Moody Bible Institute, 820 N. LaSalle St. Chicago 10, Ill. for more information about the religious and scientific purposes for which these films were made.

School Board in Action— For your PTA meeting, in color or black and white, running time 27 minutes. It details the function of a school board; discusses the challenge facing America's school boards today; outlines the rights of citizens in relation to their school boards; shows what teachers and superintendents do; dramatizes the importance of America's school board to the security, the stability, and the intellectual development of the nation's children. Information from NATIONAL SCHOOL BOARDS ASSOCIATION, INC., 450 East Ohio Street, Chicago 11, Ill.

An 8-page "calendar" which cannot become out-of-date, comprised of a beautifully illustrated series of dates that mark our freedoms, one for each month in the year. The usual holidays are remembered, but August 26, the date on which the 19th amendment was ratified, should be imprinted on our minds, for it was on that day our women first had the right to vote. Any reasonable quantity can be obtained free of charge from GENERAL FOODS CORP., 250 North St., White Plains, N. Y. (These pictures appeared in the *Woman's Home Companion* of Feb. 1954)

The 75th Anniversary of Incandescent Light is being celebrated at the Henry Ford Museum and Greenfield Village, Dearborn, Michigan. A packet of free materials includes a bibliography of books, films, and filmstrips about Thomas A. Edison; a description of permanent exhibits about him; a chronology of Edison's life and accomplishments; a facsimile copy of the *Herald* published and printed by Young Tom Edison in 1862. Write to the Education Department, Henry Ford Museum, Dearborn, Mich., and ask also about low-cost filmstrips and posters about the electric light, for classroom use.

Mathematical Teaching Aids, compiled by Joseph J. Urbancek of Chicago Teachers College, is a very helpful *Chicago Schools Journal Supplement* which has been made available for general distribution at nominal cost (25c per single copy; postage charges only for multiples of 25 copies). This 80-page compilation includes annotated listings of films and filmstrips, other audio-visual and manipulative materials, free and inexpensive instructional aids and materials, professional books and monographs, etc. for virtually all phases and branches of both elementary school and secondary school mathematics. Order from *Chicago Schools Journal* Editorial Office, Chicago Teachers College, 6800 Steward Avenue, Chicago 21, Illinois.

Arithmetic Problems Have Answers is a booklet of reprinted articles and portions of articles (written by Leo J. Brueckner) from the 1954 edition of *Comptons Pictured Encyclopedia.* Sections of the booklet deal with arithmetic in the modern school program; with our number system; with the processes of addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division; and with common fractions. Order from F. E. Compton and Company, 1000 North Dearborn Street, Chicago 10, Illinois. Free.

How to Adjust Arithmetic Instruction to Individual Differences, by Leo J. Brueckner, is the first in a series of brief "Winston's Consultant Bulletins." The second in the series, also written by Dr. Brueckner, is *What Is the Nature of Diagnosis in Arithmetic (and its educational ally) Remedial Instruction?* These bulletins contain helpful suggestions, both general and specific, in relation to these two instructional problems in arithmetic. (As would be expected, some of the points of discussion are illustrated by sample pages or the like from the *Winston Arithmetics.)* Order from The John C. Winston Co., 1010 Arch Street, Philadelphia 7,Pa. Free.

Curriculum Development - - -
(Continued from page 3)

establish two-way communication which leads to mutual understandings and appreciations beneficial to the entire school program.

Working and planning on a K-12 basis enables a school system to establish general policies which can be implemented effectively at all grade levels. Policies on such matters as grouping, competition, and instruction of the gifted child can be viewed system-wide and applied with some consistency from grade to grade and school to school. Decisions on grouping children must often be made by teachers. If no general directions or policies are suggested, individual teachers and schools will make their own decisions, often in glaring conflict with those of other teachers. Children moving from school to school or from grade to grade might face a kaleidoscopic range of policies, making individual pupil adjustment difficult.

Not all school problems can be solved by establishing system-wide policies. When a school system operates on a K-12 basis, however, teachers know where policies have been established and where teachers must make their own decisions.

Principle III. ***Build a curriculum on sound present practices.***

Much time is often wasted at the start of a new curriculum program in proving how bad existing practices are. A certain amount of teacher dissatisfaction is often necessary before staff members are interested and willing to move forward. Once movement is begun, however, the emphasis should be placed on starting with good present practices.

Racine teachers were dissatisfied with several phases of the old social studies program, particularly with the subject matter content and with the lack of an integrated thirteen-year plan. The presence of these problems provided an impetus for the initiation of the Social Studies Study. Throughout the work of the Committee, however, a strong emphasis was put on utilizing all good existing practices.

This approach gave Racine teachers a feeling of security in knowing that the recommendations of the Committee would not be completely revolutionary but would represent a gradual change. Teachers were more willing to accept changes which were not advertised as entirely new, different, and radical. This point of view gave credit and recognition to those teachers who have been carrying on forward-looking practices as well as encouragement to others to pioneer in the future.

Building on present good practices also gave the Committee a need for examining present strengths and utilizing those strengths in other areas than the social studies. The social studies curriculum change thus became a vehicle for the general improvement of all content instruction not only in social studies but in areas utilizing similar subjects and learning processes.

Principle IV. ***Secure participation of various interested and concerned persons on the basis of (1) the function they have to perform in curriculum change, and (2) their competence in performing it.***

The broad philosophy expressed in this principle is that curriculum change means change in the persons who make curriculum. These persons are more likely to change if, directly or indirectly, they can express their own ideas about needed change, can have a part in making changes, and can assist in the evaluation of these changes.

Classroom teachers need to function in all phases of curriculum study—*initiation, planning,* and *evaluating.* In a large city school system securing the participation of a large number of persons requires that some participation be indirect through duly elected representatives and councils. Teachers' needs and concerns must play a large part in the initiation of curriculum projects; the actual work may be carried out by committees of teachers with whatever outside assistance is needed. Throughout a study, teacher representatives carrying on the work must secure participation of all teachers through frequent reporting and constant two-way communication. Teacher evaluation of curriculum change is, of course, similarly essential.

An illustration of such teacher participation was provided throughout the Racine Social Studies Curriculum Study. As has been previously mentioned, this study was initiated because of teacher dissatisfaction. The planning of the Curriculum Council has also been mentioned earlier. The Committee appointed to make the study consisted of 22 teachers, representing all grade levels and all schools, and including six representatives from principals and from the central office. Teachers served as officers of the Committee and composed all of the steering sub-group. Committee members gave regular progress reports to their buildings at staff meetings conducted by principals. In addition, a pattern of reporting to the total city staff and to grade-level groups was developed. After each three-day session of the Social Studies Committee, representatives from the Committee gave a report of progress to all professional employees at a general staff meeting. These reports were followed by grade-group meetings conducted by members of the Committee from each grade. In these grade-group meetings. kindergarten through grade six, and in departmental social studies meetings in the secondary schools, real two-way communication was established. Committee members reported directly to teachers and teachers reacted directly to Committee members.

In all these discussions it was clearly understood that the final recommendations were to be made only by the Committee. Grade groups cast no votes, made no decisions. Opinions of all teachers, however, were given frequent airings, and were duly considered by the Committee.

Central office staff, including the Superintendent, Director of Instructional Services, and the specialists of the Division of Instructional Services likewise par-

ticipated throughout the Social Studies Study. They had a voice in the initiation of the Study through their representatives on the Curriculum Council. They, too, heard progress reports at their regular meetings, and four of them served as Committee members. Whenever the Committee had a question about a special interest represented by a consultant, such as the place of art in social studies teaching, it sought the advice of that particular consultant. The Superintendent of Schools and the Director of Instructional Services served as ex-officio members of the Committee and accepted responsibility for over-all direction of the study.

Parents have served Racine curriculum groups by suggesting desirable goals during the initiating process and by evaluating results of the operation of the new program. When the Committee on Reporting Pupil Progress started work on an improved system of reporting, for example, they talked with over 2,000 parents, parents from every organized parent group throughout the city. They collected parent reactions on such basic issues as *purposes in reporting, various means of reporting, and on the question of whether evaluation of a child should be made in comparison with the progress of other pupils or in comparison with the child's own ability.* Parents also evaluate new programs as they meet teachers in home visits and in parent-teacher conferences at school, and as they react in P.T.A. discussions throughout the year.

Principle V. ***Provide the necessary accessories for smooth operation.***

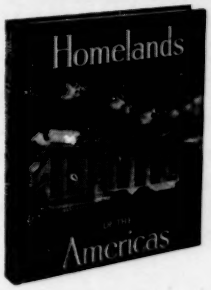
A major problem in curriculum construction is the providing of time for committee study. Practically all the Racine Curriculum studies have required fifty to sixty hours of committee meetings yearly, plus another hundred hours of time spent in outside study. Once committee recommendations have been adopted, the arduous process of putting these suggestions into operation requires many more hours of labor.

Three plans have been followed in providing time and in making the expenditure of extra hours more palatable to committee members. Some studies are conducted during the school year on a released-time basis. Teachers are freed from classrom responsibilities while substitutes carry on classroom instruction. During the Social Studies Study, teachers were released for three three-day periods, nine days in all. The Study Committee met from 8:30 A.M. through 3:30 P.M. daily. The steering sub-group remained until 4:30 P.M. In addition the Study Committee met before, between, and after the three-day sessions as necessary.

Other committees have met entirely on after-school or Saturday time. Favorite meeting time is the 4:00 P.M. to 8:30 P.M. session, built around a 5:30 P.M.–6:30 P.M. dinner hour. Seldom is a session less than two hours in length.

The Board of Education has authorized the granting of credit toward advanced standing on the salary schedule and/or toward meeting summer study re-

NOT JUST "BRAND NEW" — THIS 1954 GEOGRAPHY IS *TRULY MODERN*—



HOMELANDS of the AMERICAS

by Thurston and Hankins

*

5TH GRADE

*

Richly illustrated with over 300 pictures, many of them full color kodachromes, and with new-style maps, graphs, and superb visual aids, this truly modern text emphasizes both the regional and the political aspects of our New World geography.

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quirements to those participating in this type of major curriculum study. A credit is granted for sixteen hours of committee work plus thirty-two outside hours of study and preparation.

Committee reports often call for extensive follow-up work, such as preparing curriculum guides, building resource units, or offering of workshops. Such activities are usually carried on during the summer months and are compensated for on a credit basis or through the payment of a $2.50 per hour fee for services. Teachers often have the choice of credit or financial compensation.

Providing adequate meeting facilities is another item of importance. The need for a longer meeting time has made the dinner meeting popular. A dinner prepared by school cafeteria personnel is available to those attending the 4:00 P.M. to 8:30 P.M. sessions. School libraries usually provide flexible furniture which can be moved from the U-shaped large-group formation to the small group and individual table formations as desired. The move from library to cafeteria for dinner offers a convenient break as well as a pleasant social interlude. Committee members find themselves building warm friendships with their fellow teachers as studies progress.

Principle VI. ***Follow through to action at the classroom level.***

Probably few things are more demoralizing to a curriculum program than to have very little happen by way of real change after an intensive study has been made. Some changes may be resisted to a degree, but once an agreement has been made and commitments have been reached, those responsible for the execution of the new program must bend every effort to "follow through" and make clear that action is expected, that changes are to be made.

The setting of deadlines for steps to be taken helps move a program from *study* to *action*. Dates for completion of the Racine reports and for final meetings with the Board of Education are established in early spring. Each committee report contains a section dealing with "Recommended Board Action," indicating what steps the committee suggests the Board take. Once Board action has been taken, all groups are committed.

Reports also contain clear outlines of steps to be taken when Board approval is reached and a timetable for the inauguration of the new program. Board action often involves the request for funds to support workshops needed to carry out the program. The Social Studies Committee Report, for example, requested that two workshops be held the summer following the Report to prepare instructional materials for the new program. Fifteen teachers were hired to write curriculum guides in a workshop held immediately after the close of school. The guides were written and in the hands of each teacher when school started in September. Another workshop was held at the end of summer to study teaching methods in the social studies and to prepare resource units. A number of units were prepared in the workshop, teachers attending summer school wrote others, and plans have been made to complete the writing of the remaining units this year.

Committee reports also set up evaluation procedures to be followed by a smaller group as the new plans are put into operation. Continuing groups meet regularly in the years following the report to study and to evaluate the operation of the new program. Some of these groups meet with the Board to submit progress reports. They serve without credit. They act as "watch dogs" to see that action is taken, and they also suggest modifications necessary for the most effective functioning of the new program.

The focus of the changes recommended in most cases is the classroom. The person best able to expedite building changes is the building principal. If action is to be taken, he is most favorably situated to aid his teachers in making these changes. Throughout the period of Committee study, principals are kept in close touch with committee thinking through reports and discussions in principals' meetings. When visiting consultants are used, the principals meet with them. In this manner, principals can prepare themselves to lead their staff in the introduction of necessary changes.

The six principles described above have been found basic and fundamental in the curriculum program in the Racine Public Schools. They have evolved through the experience of the last several years in studying curriculum problems. They are outlined in this article with the hope that they may have some practical value to other curriculum workers.

a key executive?

a valued clerk?

a skilled worker?

an experienced secretary?

Lost Needlessly?

Although more than 70,000 Americans were cured of cancer last year the tragic truth is that at least 70,000 others—who might have been saved—lost their lives because their cancers had spread and "colonized" in other parts of their bodies before proper treatment could be started.

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SECOND . . . *To learn the 7 danger signals that may mean cancer, and go straight to your doctor at the first sign of any one of them—(1) Any sore that does not heal (2) A lump or thickening, in the breast or elsewhere (3) Unusual bleeding or discharge (4) Any change in a wart or mole (5) Persistent indigestion or difficulty in swallowing (6) Persistent hoarseness or cough (7) Any change in normal bowel habits.*

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